# THE ATHENÆUM

Journal of English and Foreign Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts.

No. 564. LONDON, SATURDAY, AUGUST 18, 1838. PRICE FOURPENCE, (Stamped Edition, 5d.)

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## REVIEWS

*How to Observe. Morals and Manners.* By Harriet Martineau. Knight.

THIS publication is intended as one of a series, of which Mr. De la Beche's volume on Geology, bearing a similar title, was the first. [See *Athenæum*, No. 402.] Its subject, however, is widely different. Whoever approaches, for the first time, the science of Geology, with a view to its regular study, however well he may be prepared with a scientific catalogue of words, and a selected collection of specimens, will find himself so much at a loss in crossing the district he has undertaken to examine, that he will be infinitely obliged by the interference of any more practised examiner, who will take the pains of pointing out to him what he should observe. Accordingly, we are satisfied that many a student has derived great assistance from Mr. De la Beche's volume of instructions, and been thankful for the publication. Like assistance is, in reality, required by the ordinary common-place voyager, who starts on the Ulyssian business of "seeing men and cities;" and the frequent failure of professional travellers and book-makers, in their attempts to discover the truth, is a sufficient proof of the fact. The same consciousness of weakness, however, is not felt; and we are pretty sure that the very annunciation of the title of Miss Martineau's book of easy lessons for young beginners will provoke a smile in many a grave and self-satisfied face.

"If, on his return," our authoress observes, "from the Mediterranean, the unprepared traveller was questioned about the geology of Corsica, or the public buildings of Palermo, he would reply, 'Oh, I can tell you nothing about that—I never studied geology; I know nothing about architecture.' But few, or none, make the same avowal about the morals and manners of a nation. Every man seems to imagine that he can understand men at a glance; he supposes that it is enough to be among them, to know what they are doing; he thinks that eyes, ears, and memory are enough for morals, though they would not qualify him for botanical or statistical observation; he pronounces confidently upon the merits and social condition of the nations among whom he has travelled; no misgiving ever prompts him to say, 'I can give you little general information about the people I have been seeing; I have not studied the principles of morals; I am no judge of national manners.'"

The cause of this difference, duly explained, will afford a key to the character and prospects of the work before us, and to a just estimate of its merits and defects. Let us inquire, then, what is meant by observing, and why instruction is required in the exercise of the senses. Any single phenomenon, taken by itself, is a mere object of sense; and different individuals, provided their organs are perfect, and their attention awake, will see it alike. But nature presents nothing in this simple aspect. Every object of sense is offered to human contemplation in a double connexion; first, with other objects, and secondly, with the observer himself. Every such phenomenon stands connected with external nature, in the relations of time, place, cause and effect, &c.; and the idea it excites has also its connexions with the suggestions of memory and of imagination,—that is, with the former experience of the observer. It is in these relations that the principal value of most phenomena consists; and it follows, that the interest which any novel object of sense is capable of inspiring, is proportionate, *cæteris paribus*, to the quantum of previous knowledge which the observer possesses of these relative matters. An unideal man, in crossing a field, picks up a piece of bone, and he sees nothing in it beyond the bare fact that it is a bone: he throws it, therefore, away, as a thing neither curious nor useful. But if the observer be a farmer, the bone may suggest to him recollections of its relations to his peculiar business; he then sees it not merely as a bone, but as a manure. So a turner will regard it as the material from which he can construct a serviceable or vendible article. But a Cuvier will perceive in its form and structure indications of the entire anatomy and physiology of the animal of which it formed a part; he will distinguish whether it is in a recent or fossil state; and if the latter, he will know in what peculiar formation it was a deposit, and what was the external aspect of nature, when that animal was a living, moving, creature. He will remark, too, whether that formation is present in the neighbourhood; and, in the negative case, he will recollect the nearest localities where it presents itself, and their bearings to the point where he stands; and thence he will calculate the nature and direction of the moving forces, which could alone have brought the bone to the place where he discovered it: and thus, in that bone, he will find the demonstration of a whole volume of truths: such a man has, indeed, observed what he has seen. If such and so numerous be the points observable in a mere fragment of bone, how immeasurably great must be the difference which moral and social phenomena present, with all their endless complexity of cause and consequence, and all the multiform modifications they receive in their bearings, through slight changes in their intensity. How widely different must be the sphere of intellectual vision enjoyed by the boor, the polished gentleman, and the philosopher! All men, it is said, are not fit for all things; and the reason is, that, independently of organic differences, the senses require an education for nearly every specific purpose. The absence of sufficient data for judging externals, is then one source of inaccuracy.

The simplest perceptions, however, of a child of a few years old are connected with some ideas, the results of his former experience; and these arising in his mind without effort, and without deliberate consciousness, and, moreover, constantly accompanying the perception, whenever it is renewed, may, and very often do, appear to him to be part of the sensation itself, and, consequently, of the thing perceived. Here, then, is another source of error; the inexperienced, or inattentive observer thinks he sees what he really does not see; confounding memory with sensation.

Another and more frequent inaccuracy arises in the imperfection of former observations: the memory is laden with what the Scotch have called false facts, and with false inferences, with prejudices and mistakes. It has likewise dropped some of its materials by the way; and the observer is apt to replace those lost links by the suggestions of the imagination. In proportion, therefore, not only to his ignorance, but to the quantum of his erroneous opinions, and false perceptions of things, is the observer likely to see more or less in an object, than, in truth, belongs to it.

But, besides all this, individuals differ in the original constitution of their minds, whereby an external makes impressions upon them of different degrees of strength and continuity: they thus observe more or less of those circumstances in objects with which they really have been previously acquainted.

The accuracy of observation is still further liable to be affected by the passions of the observer. Men are said to be blinded by their desires; but they also sometimes see much more than the truth, through the excitement of their emotions. A state of enthusiasm vitiates the entire process; and detracts from the value of its results, in an immeasurable degree. We have recently alluded to this fact, in the case of the Animal Magnetists.

Applying these statements to the two subjects under consideration,—in the instance of geology, the facts are removed from the sphere of ordinary observation, and the inferential matters they suggest are the deductions of a specific science cultivated only by the few. The ignorance of these particulars is not incompatible with a sound and well-disciplined general intellect; and the individual who studies the science, and goes in search of its facts, is aware not only of his own deficiency, but that there is no reason why it should not exist: he is satisfied that it is no matter of reproach to him. But in the case of the science of human life—of the science of morals and manners—none of these conditions subsist. The facts, if not absolutely familiar, are of an order which eminently is so: they are facts which every one imagines himself capable of understanding in all their relations; whereas, from their very familiarity, they are the most closely intermingled with all his previous feelings, prejudices, and habitual miscalculations. The objects—as the Germans would say—are among those, the most extensively modified by subjective causes. Not being the materials of a science separately taught, and therefore not deemed a science, they are considered as the common property of all mankind: to fail in the due application of them, is readily taken as a mark of stupidity or of a bad education; and to tell the world that it stands in need of a lesson how to observe in such an instance, if it does not provoke resentment, will very surely excite surprise.

Accordingly, we find all sorts and conditions of persons presumptuously reporting their observations on men and manners, viewing everything through a distorted medium, overlooking things the most obvious to remark, and drawing the falsest conclusions from all they see. With them, the *tractent fabrilia* is wholly overlooked; and nations are calumniated, prejudices propagated, truth distorted, and philosophy put on a wrong scent, with an inapprehensiveness that makes ordinary readers laugh, but fills the friend of his species with grief. In this sense, perhaps the work of Miss Martineau might be considered as called for, and its utility be taken as considerable. But the very causes which create the want, are insurmountable impediments to affording the supply. The complexity of the facts relating to social science, the small number of principles on which mankind are agreed, the all but impossibility of acquiring the whole knowledge necessary as

a preliminary for attacking the subject, or of taking a sufficiently extended view of the objects to be investigated, are circumstances almost as vexatiously in the way of the tutor as of the student. It is not a particular science, but the whole frame and constitution of a mind, that is to be communicated; and the teacher, instead of an art of observing, can only give a *résumé* of his own principles, observations, and particular opinions on government, and things in general. The art of observation being the just application of what has already been discovered in relation to a fact; or science, the teaching of that art, as it applies to any particular science, is but one mode of teaching the science itself. [*Athen.* No. 402.] In respect to geology, nothing is more easy of conception, than the idea of communicating that science. We have text books in plenty, of various excellence; and the merit of Mr. de la Beche's volume lies as much in his superior mastery over the subject, and the perfect view of geology his treatise affords, as in his peculiar mode of touching it. In respect to men and manners, on the other hand, the field is so immense, so imperfectly surveyed, and requires for its due exploring, intellectual attributes of so exalted a nature, that it escapes from the trammels of art, and is beyond the assistance of short methods and axiomatic *formulæ*. Text books we may have—of ethics, of political economy, of ideology, and of legislation—but if ever we could conceive the idea of teaching the art of observing men and manners, we must at the same time acknowledge, that, while such an art would be useless to the man whom nature has organized for the task, it would remain an unknown tongue or a sealed volume to those whose grasp of mind is too narrow to do without such assistance. In one word, it will strike the common sense of the qualified reader, that the philosophy of man and of society forms no legitimate part of the subjects, which the series of essays we have mentioned should contemplate; that, to avoid serious errors, would require attainments of which no individual can boast;—and that, however well the task might be executed, it would never educate one good observer, among those who are not independent of its instructions.

Taking it, however, as a work of lower pretensions, and regarding it merely as an essay on travellers and travelling, it is a production of great merit, replete with sound reflections, luminous suggestions, and interesting and useful references to the results of the author's own experience as a reader and an observer: and if it fails in its professed object of teaching others to observe, it will, in some degree, assist the qualified student to judge of the validity of other persons' observations.

The volume opens with a consideration of the requisites for a good travelling observer, and commences by insisting on his due comprehension of what exists at home: but he who is already in possession of this requisite, already possesses the whole art of observing, and needs no further assistance. Among the philosophical requisites, Miss Martineau justly places the knowing what you want to see—what you really have to look for; and this she properly generalizes into the one fact—the relative amount of human happiness, in any given community, as distinct from the means. Travellers are too prone to look for their own institutions everywhere, as theoretically the best; and they falsely conclude, upon missing them, that a people must be unhappy. Her next requisite is the possession of sound principles, without which no proper inference can be formed of particulars. After discussing that point, she insists upon a due appreciation of the influence of circumstance on morals, as a necessary element of tolerance and of fair criticism, upon an exemption from "every prejudice, every moral perversion," and upon the possession of a strong sympathy for the species. Among the mechanical requisites, she places the choice of a proper mode of travelling—recommending the pedestrian; and she insists on the possession of foreign languages. The second part of the work takes up a consideration of the things worthy of observation,—including religion, morality, domestic condition, ideas of liberty, progress of society, and the common discourse of the population; and the work concludes with a very short chapter on mechanical methods—the formation of queries beforehand, journalizing, note books, sketching, &c.

From this very abridged table of contents, it will be seen that Miss Martineau's art of observing is composed of a very few items; but in entering into the details, and running through the many particulars contained under each head, we discover that, in order to observe society effectively, the party should possess the strongest and best balanced constitution of intellect, with uncorrupted morals, a sound and comprehensive philosophy, a deep sympathy with humanity, and a wide knowledge of how matters are conducted in all other communities. All this is perfectly true,—and though no one traveller ever possessed all these requisites, yet they each are indebted for whatever success they may have had, as observers, to the possession of some of the *items* in considerable perfection. But again, we ask, are these things to be taught by system?

If the work, however, be considered merely as a bird's-eye view of society, under its various forms of government, and a criticism on the mistakes of travellers in judging of them and their influences, we should say that those who are acquainted with Miss Martineau's other works may form a tolerably accurate anticipation of its quality: they will look, doubtless, for the same vigour of intellect, candour, and benevolence, —the same proneness to generalize, (sometimes hastily,)—the same square-set (will she pardon us?) formality of mind, which tincture, without materially deteriorating her former lucubrations,—and they will meet with them all. The reader, who can not only read, but think, will find in her volume perpetual incitement to exercise that faculty; and those who cannot, will rarely be led astray either from virtue or happiness, by accepting her as a guide; for when she falls short of the truth in inference or argument, she saves us from the injurious consequence in action by a noble inconsistency; and suffers not the head to mislead the heart. But it is time to let the lady speak for herself: the following is a good specimen of her manner of treating her subjects.

"The truth is, that whatever may be the moral state of nations when the human world emerges hereafter from its infancy, high spiritual qualities are now matters [only] of individual concern, as those of the intellectual class were once; and their general prevalence is a matter of prospective vision alone. Time was when the swampy earth resounded with the tramp and splash of monstrous creatures, whom there was no reason present to classify, and no language to name. Then, after a certain number of ages, the earth grew drier; palm-groves and tropical thickets flourished where Paris now stands; and the waters were collected into lakes in the regions where the armies of Napoleon were of late encamped. Then came the time when savage, animal man appeared, using his physical force like the lower animals, and taught by the experience of its deficiency that he was in possession of another kind of force. Still, for ages, the use he made of reason was to overcome the physical force of others, and to render available his own portion. On this principle, and for this object, variously modified, and more or less refined, have societies been formed to this day; though, as morals are the fruit of which intellect is the blossom, spiritualism—faith in moral power—has existed in individuals ever since the first free exercise of reason. While all nations were ravaging one another as they had opportunity, there were always parents who did not abuse their physical power over their children. In the midst of a general worship of power, birth, and wealth, the affections have wrought out in individual minds a preference of obscurity and poverty for the sake of spiritual objects. Amidst the supremacy of the worship of honour and social ease, there have always been confessors who could endure disgrace for the truth, and martyrs who could die for it.—Such individual cases have never been wanting: and, in necessary connexion with this fact, there has always been a sympathy in this pure moral taste,—an appreciation which could not but help its diffusion. * *

"Thus far has the race advanced; and, having thus advanced, there is reason to anticipate that the age may come when the individual worship of spiritual supremacy may expand into national; when a people may agree to govern one another with the smallest possible application of physical force; when goodness shall come to be naturally more honoured than birth, wealth, or even intellect; when ambition of territory shall be given up; when all thought of war shall be over; when the pursuit of the necessaries and luxuries of external life shall be regarded as means to an end; and when the common aim of exertion shall be self and mutual perfection."

The next extract is at once characteristic and beautiful:—

"He will find no better place of study than the Cemetery,—no more instructive teaching than Monumental Inscriptions. The brief language of the dead will teach him more than the longest discourses of the living. He will learn what are the prevalent views of death; and when he knows what is the common view of death, he knows also what is the aspect of life to no small number—that is, he will have penetrated into the interior of their morals.—If it should ever be fully determined that the pyramids of Egypt were designed solely as places of sepulture, they will cease to be the mute witness they have been for ages. They will tell at least that death was not regarded as the great leveller,—that kings and peasants were not to sleep side by side in death, any more than in life. How they contrast with the Moravian burial-grounds, where all are laid in rows as they happen to be brought to the grave, and where memorial is forbidden!—The dead of Constantinople are cast out from among the living in waste, stillness, and solitude. The cemeteries lie beyond the walls, where no hum from the city is heard, and where the dark cypresses overhanging the white marble tombs, give an air of mourning and desolation to the scene. In contrast with these are the church-yards of English cities, whose dead thus lie in full view of the living; the school-boy trundles his hoop among them, and the news of the day is discussed above their place of rest. This fact of where the dead are laid is an important one. If out of sight, death and religion may or may not be connected in the general sentiment; if within or near the places of worship, they certainly are so connected. * * The burial of the dead by the road-side by some of the ancients, seems to have brought death into the closest relation with life; and when the place chosen is taken in connexion with the inscriptions on the tombs,—words addressed to the wayfarer as from him who lies within,—from the pilgrim now at rest to the pilgrim still on his way, they give plain indications of the views of death and life entertained by those who placed them.

"Much may be learned from the monumental inscriptions of all nations. * * One common rule, drawn from a universal sentiment, has presided at the framing of all epitaphs for some thousands of years. 'De mortuis nil nisi bonum' is the universal agreement of mourners.† It follows that epitaphs must everywhere indicate what is there considered good.

"The observer must give his attention to this.

† "An exception to this may meet the eye of a traveller once in a lifetime. There is a village church-yard in England where the following inscription is to be seen. After the name and date occurs the following:

He was a Bad Son,
A Bad Husband,
A Bad Father.
'The wicked shall be turned into Hell.'"

Among a people 'whose merchants are princes,' the praise of the departed will be in a different strain from that which will be found among a warlike nation, or a community of agriculturists. Here, one may find monumental homage to public spirit, in the form of active citizenship; there, to domestic virtue as the highest honour. The glory of eminent station, of ancient family, of warlike deeds, and of courtly privileges, may be conspicuously exhibited in one district; while in another the dead are honoured in proportion to their contempt of human greatness, even when won by achievements; to their having lived with a sole regard 'to things unseen and eternal.' An inscription which breathes the pride of a nobly family in telling that 'all the sons were brave, and all the daughters chaste,' presents a summary of the morals of the age and class to which it belongs. It tells that the supreme honour of men was to be brave, and of women to be chaste; excluding the supposition of each sharing the virtue of the other: whereas, when courage and purity shall be understood in their full signification, it will have become essential to the honour of a noble family that all the sons should be also pure, and all the daughters brave. Then, bravery will signify moral rather than physical courage, and purity of mind will be considered no attribute of sex."

Again:—

"Man-worship is as universal a practice as that of the higher sort of religion. As men everywhere adore some supposed agents of unseen things, they are, in like manner, disposed to do homage to what is venerable, when it is presented to their eyes in the actions of a living man. This man-worship is one of the most honourable and one of the most hopeful circumstances in the mind of the race. An individual here and there may scoff at the credulity of others, and profess unbelief in human virtue; but no society has ever yet wanted faith in man. Every community has its saints, its heroes, its sages,—whose tombs are visited, whose deeds are celebrated, whose words have become the rules by which men live. * * By the study of them may much of the consequent movement be understood. The observer of British morals should gather up the names of their idols; he will hear of Hampden, Bacon, Shakspeare, Newton, Howard, and Wesley. In Scotland, he will hear of Bruce and Knox. What a flood of light do these names shed on our *morale!* It is the same with the Englishman abroad, when his attention is referred in France to Henri IV., Richelieu, Turenne, and Napoleon, to Bossuet and Fenelon, to Voltaire, and their glorious list of natural philosophers: in Italy, to Lorenzo de' Medici, Galileo, and their constellations of poets and artists: in Germany, to Charles V., Luther, Schwartz, Goethe, Copernicus, Handel, and Mozart. There is in every nation a succession of throned gods, each of whom is the creator of some region of the national mind, and has formed men into more or less of his own likeness. * *

"The spirit of the times is seen in the character of the idols of the day, however the nation may be divided in its choice of idols, and however many sects there may be in the man-worship of the generation. In our own day, for instance, how plainly is the movement of society discerned, from the fact of the eminence of philanthropists in many countries! * * Every society has always its idols. If there are none by merit, at any moment, station is received as a qualification. Large numbers are always worshipping the heads of the aristocracy, of whatever kind they may be; and there is rarely a long interval in which there is not some warrior, some poet, artist, or philanthropist, on whom the multitude are flinging crowns and incense. The popularity of Byron testified to the existence of a gloomy discontent in a multitude of minds, as the adoration of De Béranger discloses the political feelings of the French. Statesmen rarely command an overwhelming majority of worshippers, because interest enters much more than sentiment into politics: but every author, or other artist who can reach the general mind,—every preacher, philanthropist, soldier, or discoverer, who has risen into an atmosphere of worship in pursuit of a purpose, is a fresh Peter the Hermit, meeting and stimulating the spirit of his time, and exhibiting its temper to the observer,—foreign as to either clime or century. The physical observer of a new region might as well shut his eyes to the mountains, and omit to note which way the streams run, as the moral observer pass by the idols of a nation with a heedless gaze."

In the subsequent quotation, the general statement is true, and cannot too frequently be repeated; but we object to the imputed cause.

"Recklessness of human life is one of the surest symptoms of barbarism, whether life is taken by law or by assassination. As men grow civilized, and learn to rate the spiritual higher and higher above the physical life, human life grows sacred. The Turk orders off the head of a slave almost without a serious thought. The New Zealanders have murdered men by scores, to supply their dried and grinning heads to English purchasers, who little imagined the cost at which they were obtained. This is the way in which life is squandered in savage societies. Up to a comparatively high point of civilization, the law makes free with life, long after the private expenditure of it has been checked or has ceased. Duels, brawls, assassinations, have nearly been discontinued, and even war in some measure discountenanced, before the law duly recognises the sacredness of human life. But the time comes. One generation after another grows up with a still improving sense of the majesty of life,—of the mystery of the existence of such a being as man,—of the infinity of ideas and emotions in the mind of each, and of the boundlessness of his social relations. These recognitions may not be express; but they are sufficiently real to hold back the hand from quenching life. The reluctance to destroy such a creation is found to be on the increase. Men prefer suffering wrong to being accessary to so fearful an act as what now appears a judicial murder; the law is left unused,—is evaded,—and it becomes necessary to alter it. Capital punishments are restricted,—are further restricted,—are abolished. * * Bodily torments and disfigurements go out. Torture and mutilation are discontinued, and after a while the grosser mental inflictions."

The cause of this most desirable change in the disposition of society we should seek in a growing preponderance of the nervous over the muscular system, incidental to civilized life, and in a consequent increase of man's sympathy for his species. The spectacle of pain in others, produces physical pain in the excitable frame of the daintily educated and delicate citizen; and this sets his intellect to work, to demonstrate the folly of wanton cruelty. As for "the mystery of human existence," and such vague and abstruse metaphysics, the juries who save prisoners from a violent death, by acquitting them in defiance of evidence, never even heard of such things. It is doubtful whether so abstract a notion as this exerts any considerable influence on the highly-organized mind of Miss Martineau herself.

On popular poetry, Miss Martineau observes:—

"It appears that popular songs are both the cause and effect of general morals: that they are first formed, and then re-act. In both points of view they serve as an index of popular morals. The ballads of a people present us, not only with vivid pictures of the common objects which are before their eyes,—given with more familiarity than would suit any other style of composition,—but they present also the most prevalent feelings on subjects of the highest popular interest. If it were not so, they would not have been popular songs. The traveller cannot be wrong in concluding that he sees a faithful reflection of the mind of a people in their ballads. When he possesses the popular songs of former centuries, he holds the means of transporting himself back to the scenes of the ancient world, and finds himself a spectator of its most active proceedings. Wars are waged beneath his eye, and the events of the chase grow to a grandeur which is not dreamed of now. Love, the passion of all times, and the staple of all songs, varies in its expression among every people and in every age, and appears still another and yet the same. The lady of ballads is always worthy of love and song; but there are instructive differences in the treatment she receives. Sometimes she is oppressed by a harsh parent; sometimes wrongfully accused by a wicked servant, or a false knight; sometimes her soft nature is exasperated into revenge; sometimes she is represented as fallen, but always, in that case, as enduring retribution. Upon the whole, the testimony is strong in favour of bravery in men, and purity in women, and constancy in both. * *

"What the traveller has to look to is, that he does not take one aspect of the popular mind for the whole, or a temporary state of the popular mind for a permanent one,—though, from the powerful action of national song, this temporary state is likely to become a permanent one by its means. As an instance of the first, the observer would be mistaken in judging of more than a class of English from some of the best songs they have,—Dibdin's sea songs. They are too fair a representation of the single class to which they pertain, though they have done much to foster and extend the spirit of generosity, simplicity, activity, gaiety, and constant love, which they breathe. They have undoubtedly raised the character of the British navy, and are to a great degree indicative of the naval spirit with us: but they present only one aspect of the national mind. In Spain, again, the songs with which the mountains are ringing, and whose origin is too remote to be traced, are no picture of the conventional mind of the aristocratic classes. As an instance of the false conclusions which might be drawn from the popular songs of a brief period, we may look to the revolutionary poetry of France. * *

"The rudest and the most advanced nations abound in songs. They are heard under the plantain throughout Africa, as in the streets of Paris. The boatmen on the Nile, and the children of Cairo on their way to school, cheer the time with chants; as do the Germans in their vineyards, and in the leisure hours of the university. The Negro sings of what he sees and feels,—the storm coming over the woods, the smile of his wife, and the coolness of the drink she gives him. The Frenchman sings the woes of the state prisoner, and the shrewd self-cautionings of the citizens. The Songs of the Egyptian are amatory, and of the German varied as the accomplishments of the nation,—but in their moral tone earnest and pure. The more this mode of expression is looked into, the more serviceable it will be found to the traveller's purposes of observation."

In conclusion,—whatever doubts we may entertain of the popularity of this work, as a didactic effort, we are perfectly sure that it will find its way into the collections, not only of those who feel for mankind, and think for themselves, but of all who are susceptible of the pleasures of a discursive and gossiping philosophy.

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*New Zealand.* By J. S. Polack, Esq. 2 vols. Bentley.

*Official Documents relating to New Zealand.* With Introductory Observations, by S. Hinds, D.D. Parker.

The question whether New Zealand shall become a British colony, is one now ripe for decision. The bill introduced into Parliament in June last, and which had for its object to vest in a commission, similar to that which holds the dominion of Southern Australia, the power to plant colonies in New Zealand, and to govern them under certain regulations, owed its rejection, as perhaps our readers are aware, to the prevalent belief that it was framed too much in subserviency to private interests; the arguments of public expediency, relied on by the advocates of the bill, were, under those circumstances, passed by unheeded, and are reserved probably for consideration and debate in the next session. Meanwhile, Mr. Polack's volumes opportunely make their appearance, affording us not a little information respecting the natural resources of New Zealand, and its eligibility for a colony; with still more ample means of estimating correctly the political and social condition of the indigenous population. They are, nevertheless, more amusing than instructive, although the author's adventures occupy, in reality, but a small portion of them; and the interest of his narrative is so intimately connected with its

jocular manner, that, without more prolix extracts than our pages can reasonably admit, we should fail in the attempt to convey an adequate idea of it. Let the reader, therefore, who wishes to have a ramble among savages with a good humoured guide, go at once to Mr. Polack's volumes. We shall endeavour to abridge only a part of one of his excursions, for the sake of grouping such incidents as are calculated to form a fair picture of New Zealand manners.

Soon after the arrival of Mr. Polack in New Zealand, in 1831, the commercial objects which he had in view induced him to explore the district of Kaipara, on the western coast, in which is the outlet of several large rivers. In the following year he made a second excursion to the same place, for the purpose of purchasing flax, timber, and other commodities for exportation.

"In the latter excursion," says our author, "I was accompanied by ten native young men, principally sons of respectable chiefs, who did not regard it as derogatory to their rank to perform menial offices, such as carrying provisions on their backs, which are prohibited from bearing any weights, otherwise than in the service of Europeans. My native servant, Puhi, invariably followed me in all my journeys. He subsequently accompanied me twice to Port Jackson. Many of the young chiefs joined my suite purposely to see their relations, and exult in a little pride before them, knowing the envy it would excite in the bosoms of their young friends, by being in the pay and employ of a *Rangatira no Uropi*, or gentleman of Europe, who was accounted a *rara avis in terris* in the settlements we proposed visiting."

From the mouth of the Hokianga, the first part of the journey led southwards parallel to the sea shore. Near the dwellings of the natives were some fine plantations of Indian corn, and kumeras, or sweet potatoes, nearly ripe, and in fine condition; but they were strictly tapûed, and a bunch of human hair suspended from the cabbage palm-tree, warned the traveller that it would be impious to touch them. Towards the interior an endless succession of hills and mountains, clothed with various evergreen foliage, rose one above another. The first village reached was that of Waipoa, situated in a fine valley opening to the sea shore. As soon as Mr. Polack and his party were descried, their arrival was greeted by the firing of muskets and the yelling of innumerable dogs. Several of the people of Waipoa ran to meet the white man, to rub noses with him (the New Zealand mode of salutation); and he, as eagerly, sought to escape that act of courtesy.

"To get rid of the ceremony, I pressed the tallest of the villagers into my service; and, jumping on his back, I was carried down the steep hills; two other men pressing forwards, clearing the path, and supporting my feet. They were all exceedingly pleased with 'Ko te pákeha pai, káoré ano redi e ná tangátá maori,' (the excellent white man, who permitted the natives to do what they pleased, without being angry in return). We had to cross and recross the little rivulet, which pursued its devious way in circular meanderings throughout the valley. Previous to our arrival at the *Pá*, or fortified village, I halted for my companions in a deep glen, from which the settlement was not visible. The lads soon came up, but instead of moving onwards, I was given to understand, that here it was necessary that the business of the toilet, 'wakapai pai,' should be arranged, as such fashions were indispensable in the interchange of visits. As I had neither power nor inclination to stop their proceedings, I let them follow the bent of *their* inclinations, and proceeded to the village with the inhabitants, who now flocked about me in large numbers, uttering, with deafening shouts, 'Airémai! airémai!'—welcome! welcome! which was also echoed from the village, as soon as we sighted it, accompanied by a continual discharge of artillery, waving of mats, and other expressions of applause, which are so liberally bestowed by these islanders, on those whom they may choose to honour. I was too much fatigued with the day's travel to proceed further, though the promised land was in sight, within a very short distance. I, therefore, again deliberately mounted the lengthiest biped I perceived, who good humouredly carried me to the fence of the *pá*, when etiquette obliged me to dismount. On entering the fence, I was surrounded by full 250 men, entirely denuded of dress, with the sole accoutrement of a cartridge-box made fast round the waist, with a belt of leather or flax. Most of these men were at least six feet in stature; and their ample chests, brawny limbs, and altogether martial appearance, presented a fine specimen of savage nobility. It was an interesting spectacle."

Paroré, the chief of the *pá*, or fortified village, sat in state, according to custom, to receive the stranger; and having rubbed noses with him for a few seconds, went on to explain how gratified he should be to employ his people in dressing flax, felling timber, or planting vegetables, to exchange for European merchandise. Meanwhile, the traveller's retinue, who had stopped on the way to adorn their persons, for a ceremonious entry into the village, arrived among their friends, who welcomed them with all the clamour in their power. A glance at the native visitors may not be deemed uninteresting.

"The countenances of all were entirely bedaubed with a solution of the red *kokowai* earth. A few had dipped their heads within a large calibash containing this rouge dissolved in water, which formed a plaster, whose brilliancy was enhanced by a broad stain of the blue earth, called *párákáwáhia*, which was used to encircle the right eye and half of the temple. The effects of this latter pigment was best visible in the dance, when at intervals the white of the eye only is displayed. Feathers decorated the heads, which had been carried in a carved box by one of the party, who had collected a large quantity on the sea-beach, from the dead tárá, or gannets, we had passed in our route. All the finery that had been bestowed on them by Europeans, such as cast-off clothing, which are not repudiated *too hastily* by their wearers in New Zealand, were sported on this occasion. The sole article of dress on one of these exquisites, was a tattered brown waistcoat, that just reached a foot and some inches below the throat of the wearer, the nether man being entirely exposed, *in puris naturalibus*. Another had put on a shirt, whose original hue had been, from times remote, undistinguishable; this was fastened round the loins by the sleeves, forming an apron for the wearer; a native mat covered the shoulders. One youth had inserted himself into the body of a woman's gown, which served as a jelick, his extremities being incased in an old red baize shirt, the sleeves of which answered the purposes of trousers for the legs. A pair of duck trousers was tied round the throat of one young chief."

The ceremony of introducing the visitors to the chief was followed by the Haka, or war dance, which is little more than a series of frantic gestures and violent contortions of face and limbs. The supposed object, or what may be called the principle of the dance, is to inspire terror in an enemy; and, hence, all who join in it of both sexes, do their utmost to make themselves hideous, in which, by dint of practice, they are completely successful. After the Haka came the Tangi, or cry, which ceremony takes place not only when any affliction befalls the village, but also whenever old friends or relations chance to meet; or, in short, whenever anything occurs calculated to excite friendly emotions or touch domestic feelings. On such occasions, the parties whose hearts are softened, cry aloud, and shed floods of tears; and if their grief be serious, or their tenderness at all headstrong, which is often the case, they cut themselves with shells till the blood flows copiously, and the pain of their outward wounds makes them forget their inward sorrows. The stranger in New Zealand, who is disposed to believe that human nature is everywhere fundamentally the same, will find himself, at first, at a loss to explain why these vigorous barbarians should laugh and cry so vehemently, almost at the same instant, and on the most trivial occasions, or why such masculine constitutions should be moved with such infantile inconstancy. The explanation of the phenomenon, however, he will probably find to be this, that the education of the New Zealander is completed at a very early age; the full-fledged barbarian of twelve years old takes a share in all the proceedings of his village, communicating to them the influence of the manners peculiar to his time of life; and the veteran warrior, always exercising in the same school, preserves to the last the habits of the child.

When the dance and the cry were over, the preparations for the feast commenced. Two large pigs were killed, by drowning in the river, that their blood might not be lost; and these, with plenty of potatoes, Indian corn, kumeras, taro, and wild turnips, all dressed in the native oven, furnished a plentiful repast. Respecting pigs, Mr. Polack observes, "these amiable animals lead a much pleasanter life in New Zealand than in any other portion of the globe that I have seen, except in the principal cities of the United States, where these 'tarnal critturs' grace the most fashionable streets of the capitals." In New Zealand the pig often shares the bed of its owner; and Mr. Polack, whose prying glances allowed nothing to escape, tells us how much he was once amused at seeing a sleek black pig lying under the same blanket between two young ladies, and "sighing like a furnace."

Although the New Zealanders have no habits of personal cleanliness, and are often contented to dwell in mean huts swarming with vermin, they yet understand how to make themselves comfortable abodes; and in some of their domestic arrangements, manifest a refinement not common in savage life. They lavish their chief care on their Wai tapu,—that is, sacred places or cemeteries, which are carved and painted, or bedaubed with red earth, in the most elaborate manner. The slightest injury or insult offered to these will sometimes give rise to the most sanguinary wars. But their industry is most advantageously exhibited in their agricultural labours, of which our author gives the following description:—

"I spent the twilight that remained in viewing the plantations, which were laid out in the neatest order. Few farms in civilized countries could be planted with greater attention to neatness. The soil was of the richest quality; and the different edibles flourished with extraordinary vigour. The potatoes and kumeras were planted in rows of small hills, laid out with strict regularity; between those hills the large broad lotus leaf of the farinaceous tarro appeared; large broad patches of the culmiferous Indian corn grew in neat order to the right of us; and the herbaceous land was cleared of weeds, piled above the walls of stone that had been collected from the grounds, which I calculated occupied about twenty acres in extent. Among the vegetables deposited in the soil, in addition to the above-mentioned, were cabbages, shallots, garlick, turnips, and the kaipákehá, a species of yam, but infinitely superior to that ingustable vegetable, which it resembles in size and general appearance only."

Beyond Waipoa, Mr. Polack traversed extensive and fertile tracts without a single inhabitant, the tribes which once possessed them having been wholly extirpated in recent wars. When he again arrived at villages, he had to repeat the process of Ongi, or joining noses, and to witness over and over again the mock fight, the dance, and mournful tangi. Wishing at one place to hire canoes to descend a river, he was obliged to await the issue of a council, in which his request was the subject of debate, and the general relations subsisting between the natives and Europeans were collaterally discussed. One party deplored that the wisdom of their ancestors was daily encroached on by the customs of the white

men; that effeminate occupations, such as dressing flax, were taking the place of war; and that a light and incredulous spirit, introduced by the Europeans, manifested itself in the diminished earnestness of their dances, cries, and superstitious rites. On the other side, it was urged, that the resources and comforts of the people had been much increased by the Europeans, who had introduced into the island the pig and the potato, to say nothing of those invaluable gifts, gunpowder and the musket. The weight of these substantial arguments turned the scale, and our author obtained the canoes. But in this and all similar cases, it would appear as if the situation of the stranger were extremely critical; a feeling of cupidity or of vindictiveness once excited, might prove fatal to him; the merest casualty might sway the fickle and headlong multitude one way or the other, and decide whether he was to rub noses with all around him, or be despatched with a tomahawk.

It deserves to be remarked that Mr. Polack, though he resided six years in New Zealand, and travelled much among the natives, never once witnessed an act of cannibalism; nor did he even, as far as we can discover, ever actually see an indubitable proof of the existence of such a custom. On one occasion, indeed, he saw what he was told was human flesh.

"Curious to see this abhorrent food, after it had undergone a culinary process, I requested a minor chief to shew me some; he accordingly mounted a *wátá*, where the provisions are always kept, and brought down a small flax basket, containing the human viand. At first view I should have taken it for fresh pork in a boiled state, having the same pale, cadaverous colour. My informant stated, it was a piece of the lower part of the thigh, grasping with his hand that part of my body, illustrative of what he advanced. It appeared very much shrunk; and on my observing it must have appertained to a boy, the head of its possessor, when alive, was pointed out to me, apparently a man of forty-five years of age. The sight of this piece of mortality afforded the chief some pleasure, for he stretched out his tongue, pretending to lick the food, and gave other significant signs, indicative of the excessive delight he felt in partaking of human flesh."

In this passage there is nothing to convince those who are disposed to incredulity. The native who showed our author the meat, which was probably pork, was obviously a wag, and well inclined to tickle the white man's prurient sensibility. We do not, indeed, mean to deny that the New Zealanders are cannibals; the concurrent testimony against them, though far from explicit, is yet too strong to be easily thrown aside. Yet, that human flesh is anywhere habitually and commonly eaten, without the excitement of war or the goad of famine, is what we are very loath to believe; and we may add, that there is no unexceptionable evidence against us. The love of the wonderful expatiates as gladly in scenes of barbarity as in those capable of being contemplated without disgust, and cannibalism is, consequently, a theme on which vulgar minds have always delighted to amplify. We read that when wars broke out among the natives in the Portuguese possessions on the river Zambesi, the hostile tribes devoured one another, and the whole country was blazing with fires kindled to roast the victims. The children, being the daintiest food, were, of course, devoured in greatest numbers; and Father Michele Rodriguez, to whom we owe this lamentable history, gravely assures us that he frequently saw ten infants roasting on the same spit. The pious missionary adds, that he had enough to do—not to save the lives of the children, for he does not appear to have ever thought of that, but—to sprinkle them with holy water before they were done brown. This story, in which there is probably not a particle of truth, is to be found in the letters of the Jesuits, who were generally men of learning and discrimination.

We cannot but think that Mr. Polack's six years' experience of New Zealand, would have led him to entertain some doubts of the frequency of cannibalism among its inhabitants, if he had not begun with assuming the fact. The disposition most calculated to awaken our mistrust is too conspicuous in his pages, for he absolutely revels in the thoughts of man-eating; he delights to fancy himself quivering in the jaws of some tattooed ogre; he is unable to satiate himself with "supping full of horrors." He even talks of "eating an enemy before life is extinct, and casting him alive into the oven." As often as he mentions any petty strife, he is sure to particularize the feasts of human flesh in which it terminated, and the finish which he loves to bestow on this part of his picture, may be judged of from the following short passage:—

"E'Ongi pursued the Kaitangatás, or men-eating tribes, and destroyed great numbers of them. The ovens were crowded with human victims, and the places around presented dreadful scenes of carnage. All parts of the human body, mangled, were strewed about in every direction; the suckling infant, the aged mother, the young female, and the venerable parent, all lay in undistinguishable masses, and clotted gore in deep puddles, bedabbled the adjacent paths."

E'Ongi was the New Zealander who visited this country about eighteen years ago, and had the luck to attract the attention of George the Fourth, from whom he received many valuable presents. Foreign travel stimulated, without humanizing, his active spirit; and E'Ongi returned to his native land a far more formidable savage than he had left it. Inflamed with the ambition of a conqueror, he never ceased from war, which he waged with relentless barbarity; and to him alone is due the depopulation of the tracts over which Mr. Polack travelled. Now the cannibalism of E'Ongi's tribes, or of his enemies, belonged to recent times, and the northern part of the island, where Mr. Polack nevertheless reluctantly admits that that practice has long fallen into disuse; for he observes—

"The fact is so glaring, that glutting themselves with human flesh is of common occurrence to the southward, *even at this day*, yet the younger native, when owning that his parents and relatives *all partake of this food*, generally excludes himself from indulging in such vicious and unnatural tastes."

We are pretty certain, therefore, that cannibalism, which is said to be still frequent to the south, even at the present day, has long since disappeared from the range of our author's excursions; and that most of the bloody festivals celebrated in his pages, have been altogether conjured up by his imagination. Of the depopulation to which we have alluded above, he makes frequent mention. Wars have, no doubt, contributed mainly to bring it about; but Mr. Busby, the British resident in New Zealand, states his opinion plainly, in a dispatch to the Governor of New South Wales, "that all the apparent causes in operation are quite inadequate to account for the rapid disappearance of the people." After considering the effects of introducing fire-arms and diseases among the natives, this gentleman goes on to say,—

"But, on the other hand, it must not be lost sight of that the mortality has not been confined to those who have been the victims of violence, or who have been exposed to the effects of vices or diseases of foreign origin. Disease and death prevail even amongst those natives who, by their adherence to the missionaries, have received only benefits from English connexions; and even the very children who are reared under the care of the missionaries, are swept off in a ratio which promises, at no very distant period, to leave the country destitute of a single aboriginal inhabitant."

It is remarkable that a similar, apparently unaccountable, decrease of population has taken place in Tahiti, and the Sandwich Islands, though in both places the resources of the islanders have been very much increased by European traffic. Considering that no adequate physical, or, as Mr. Busby calls them, apparent causes can be assigned for this singular mortality, we cannot refrain from pointing out one of a very subtle nature, but still one to which no physician will deny a powerful operation. We venture to ask, therefore, whether the depression of spirits, so sedulously propagated round the missionary communities, be not calculated to lessen the value of life within them? A savage will die of an amulet: if once brought to believe that his days are numbered, he is sure to expire when the time is up. And will not the reclaimed son of a savage faint under the same apprehensions? or what chance has he of rallying from sickness, if the only hopes displayed to his anxious spirit are those of the next life? or finally, what success can attend the practice of the physician, who takes a pride not more in the recovery of his patient than in his edifying death? We cannot help thinking that the damp thrown on the animal spirits of the neophytes by missionary tutelage, has a tendency to make every indisposition fatal, particularly since the missionaries are also the physicians of the islands, and, mindful of their double calling, prepare the patient for death while they are administering him his medicine.

As the native population has died away, it has been replaced by Europeans, who, it is remarkable, were never deterred either by highly coloured accounts, or their own experience, of the ferocity of the natives. The obstinacy of the solitary adventurers,—sealers, whalers, and missionaries, who repeatedly returned to the shores of New Zealand, after the frightful massacres witnessed by them,—reminds one of the courage of flies, (so much lauded by Homer,) which, though driven unceasingly from the milk pails, are sure to return again. It was stated before the parliamentary committee on the state of the aboriginals in British colonies, by one of the missionaries in New Zealand, that the settlers, nearly all British, on the shores of this country, are about 1800 or 2000 in number. Some of these are sealers, runaway seamen, and low adventurers, on whose permanent residence or steady industry nothing can be reckoned. But at the northern part of the island,—even north of the river Thames,—there are above 500 settlers, many of whom have families, mercantile capital, and even estates on the island. Mr. Busby, in the dispatch from which we have already quoted, says,—

"If I am rightly informed, the whole coast line from Cape Bult, including the noble harbour of the Bay of Islands, and extending as far as Wangaroa, forty miles to the northward of the bay, has, with trivial exceptions, passed from the possession of the natives into that of British subjects. Nor has the consideration given been in all cases so disproportioned to the value of lands in an unsettled country, or even to the returns which the capital thus invested is capable of yielding, as to stamp such transactions universally with the character of injustice. Most of the valuable forests in the interior have changed their ownership: and on the western coast an extensive territory is also claimed by British subjects."

Thus it appears that there is, in fact, a British settlement in New Zealand; and considering the circumstances under which it commenced, it is manifest that it must go on increasing. But the settlement still wants the organization of civilized society. It is harassed by bad characters,—convicts from New South Wales and runaway seamen,—who carry corruption among the natives, creating disorder and bad feeling wherever they make their appearance: Mr. Busby proposes therefore that a colonial government

should be established there, for the purpose of securing the rights of the natives as well as of the settlers. The trade of the place is already considerable. The number of ships which visited the Bay of Islands in 1836, was 151 : and in the first six months of 1837, it amounted to 72, most of them of a large class. "In short," continues Mr. Busby, "the trade of New Zealand is sufficiently extensive, even now, to afford ample means for the support of an efficient government; and the country possesses sufficient resources to meet whatever increase of expenditure its circumstances may require."

It is foreign from our purpose to enter into an examination of the scheme of colonization contemplated in the bill to which we have already alluded; it will be sufficient for the present to observe, that the promoters of that bill were the members of, or partners in, an association, formed in 1825, for the purpose of purchasing land, and carrying on trade in New Zealand. The purchase of lands from a people in a rude state of society, ought, we have no hesitation in saying, to be in general considered as invalid, unless there be a competent juridical guarantee of its fairness. Future generations will be sure to treat such contracts as frauds. A company formed to buy the lands of the New Zealanders, would soon extirpate the indigenous race, unless a humane government should interpose to save them.

We do not, however, wish to maintain, that the soil of the barbarian is sacred, and cannot, under any conditions, be brought within the range of European industry and speculation. We may, on some future occasion, enter further into the discussion of the particular duties of civilized towards barbarous communities, and endeavour to reconcile the just interests of fully-developed enterprise with aboriginal rights. Here, however, we must quit the speculative question, and confine our attention to the actual state of things in New Zealand. Now, it is curious to observe, that the vehement opponents of any scheme of colonization in New Zealand are the missionary societies established there, viz. the Wesleyan and Church Missionary Societies. They make use of the vague and general argument, leaving no room for accommodation, that colonization has been always destructive to the aboriginal possessors of the country towards which it was directed, and is therefore to be deprecated. Yet in a country like New Zealand, where settlers are daily increasing, and where the cry for colonization means only a call for a regular government and controlling power, such an objection appears at the best extremely hollow.

But why do not the Missionary Societies deprecate the purchase of the soil, by which the improvident natives are gradually dispossessed of their inheritance? They are silent on that head, because they are themselves the chief purchasers. We are not able to understand perfectly whether the Church Missionary Society, or its catechists, be the real owners of lands purchased by the latter; but we know that one of their catechists, who possesses several small districts at the Bay of Islands, purchased, in 1836, an extensive tract, thirty miles in length, at Tamaka, in the Frith of the Thames. Another purchased a district fifteen miles in length, adjoining the Hokianga forest; several others of their catechists possess farms of four or five thousand acres. Thus we are warranted in concluding, that the Missionary Societies have done in New Zealand all the solid work of colonization; and the only ill which they have to fear from the establishment of a colonial government there, is, that their representatives, who are now able to thwart and embarrass the British resident, might then be forced into a subordinate position. Mr. Polack informs us, that the price paid for land to the New Zealand chiefs, is sufficiently high to save the latter from the suspicion of weakness; but neither he, nor any of those who make a similar assertion, ever tell us the rates of purchase. He informs us, indeed, that on one occasion, he bought a piece of land, which he afterwards found had been previously sold to one of the missionaries, who obligingly resigned it to him; so that we are at liberty to presume that the first purchaser had got a bargain of it, and also that the tenure of the estate is not certain; for he who could once resume his grant, may do so a second time.

Fine timber (chiefly pine) and provisions are the staple articles of New Zealand trade. The latter are supplied to the whalers and fur traders frequenting the Pacific Ocean. The seals, which were at first extremely numerous in the southern islands, have been very quickly destroyed. The New Zealand flax, or *phormium tenax*, rose rapidly in demand till 1831; but from that time the demand for it has continually declined, the speculation having proved unprofitable. The intractability of the material, which cannot be dressed by machinery, nor be subjected to an alkaline lie without loss of strength, appears to be the chief cause of its depreciation.

A French gentleman, who styles himself Baron Charles de Thierry, announced, three years back, to the governments of France and England, his intention of planting a colony, and founding an independent monarchy in New Zealand, in right of certain estates which he had purchased there, through the agency of some of the English missionaries. In 1836, he proceeded to put his plans in execution, causing thereby not a little alarm to the British settlers, whom he endeavoured to tranquillize with the assurance that he relied for success wholly on moral influence. The inadequacy of the power on which he placed so much reliance soon became apparent. He had no sooner landed, than his followers deserted him, and commenced farming on their own accounts; and the independent monarch, thus deprived of his courtiers and body guard, dwindled to a private adventurer.

We have already commended the vivacity and general truth of Mr. Polack's volumes. His language is occasionally extremely ambitious, and he coins words with a boldness which will scare not a few of his readers. He talks of hederaceous, ocrementous, and tophaceous soils; of volitary birds, subsultive fishes,—nay, he rivals the inimitable Mrs. Malaprop herself; and describes a native chief "who squinted with an *obloquy* of vision, little short of caricature." Such faults, however, are easily pardoned in one who has a brisk flow of spirits.

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*Report on the Variations of the Magnetic Intensity observed at different points of the Earth's Surface.* By Major Sabine. R. & J. Taylor.

Our readers will remember that, at the Liverpool Meeting of the British Association, Major Sabine gave a brief account of a very extensive report which he had prepared for the Association on the above subject, (see *Athenæum*, No. 517). This report has been printed, and will appear in the forthcoming volume of the Reports of the Association; but Major Sabine has caused a few copies to be published in a separate form. A memoir, also, of the discussion by Major Sabine of the Magnetic Observations made during the voyages of Capt. King, and of H.M. ships *Adventure* and *Beagle*, under Capt. Fitzroy, in a period comprised between the years 1826 and 1836, intended as an appendix to a work by the latter, has also appeared, and having been favoured with a copy of these works, we shall proceed to lay before our readers a detailed sketch of their contents.

The Report is divided into three sections. The first containing a condensed historical notice of each of the several series of observations by which our knowledge of the magnetic intensity has been progressively advanced; the second comprises the whole of the results, classed according to the values of the intensity, and arranged in a tabular form; and the third, a summary of the principal general conclusions in regard to the system of terrestrial magnetism, which are deducible from the facts thus collected.

It is a remarkable circumstance, that at the commencement of the present century there was not a single published observation to attest the existence of any difference whatsoever in the intensity of the magnetic force at different parts of the earth. The maps, attached to this memoir, exhibit the progress of investigation in the years which have since elapsed; they comprise the results of 753 distinct determinations, made at 670 stations, widely distributed over the earth's surface. Some of these are wholly new, and to be found nowhere else. Many of them, although published before, are only to be found scattered through the pages of foreign journals, or of works almost inaccessible to ordinary readers, and even there occurring in such connexions as to require much previous explanation to make them generally intelligible. We think we may safely congratulate Major Sabine on having fully accomplished the task which he proposed to himself,—having "rendered the account here given complete in all particulars essential to a just estimation of the value of the results, independently of such reference;" while, at the same time, these sources are distinctly pointed out to those who wish to consult the original publications; and the whole is comprised within surprisingly narrow bounds, when we take into account the number and variety of the observations, the importance of the results, and the rich store of collateral information interspersed.

The first section, containing the historical notices, opens with an allusion to the instructions of the French Academy of Sciences to the unfortunate La Perouse, "recommending that the time of vibration of a dipping-needle should be observed at stations widely remote, as a test of the equality or difference of the magnetic intensity; suggesting, also, with a sagacity anticipating the result, that such observations should particularly be made at those parts of the earth where the dip was greatest and where it was least." The record of these experiments, of course, perished in the general catastrophe of the expedition, "but the instructions survived, and bore fruit in *the earliest recorded observations of the variation of the magnetic intensity*, which are those published by M. de Rossel, in the second volume of the 'Voyage de Dentrecasteaux,' in search of La Perouse." Rossel's observations, although made from 1791 to 1794, were not published until 1808. They were made with a needle which continued its vibrations too short a space of time (three minutes), and the precaution was neglected, which is now known to be so necessary, of testing the constancy of the magnetism, by vibrating the needle after their return home. The observations were made successively at Brest, Teneriffe, Van Diemen's Land, at Amboyna, again after an interval of nine months at Van Diemen's Land, and at Surabaya, in Java. M. Rossel concluded, that the intensity increased in receding from the equator to the higher latitudes; and thus, although his observations were not published until after those of Humboldt, made in 1798 and on to 1803, yet Major Sabine considers him justly entitled to the distinction which he has always enjoyed, of having been the first who ascertained that the magnetic intensity is different at different positions on the earth's surface. By means of the recent observations of Capt. Fitzroy, Major Sabine has been enabled to connect the observations of M. Rossel at Amboyna with more modern European researches.

The observations by M. de Humboldt, made between 1798 and 1803, in his well-known journey to equinoctial America, were distributed over seventy-seven land stations, and twelve geographical positions at sea. The neglect of testing the constancy of the magnetic intensity of the needle used in these observations, by a repetition of the observations after having returned to Europe, gives Major Sabine an opportunity of entering upon a very interesting chain of collateral evidence, derived from subsequent observations, made by himself, in some of the same stations, to prove that no variation of consequence

could have occurred, by which means this extensive series of most important observations may be considered as restored to the rank in a scientific point of view, which otherwise this accidental circumstance would have prevented them from occupying with the certainty to which their merit so justly entitles them.

The next observations alluded to, are those of Humboldt and Gay-Lussac, made in 1805 and 1806, during a tour in France, Switzerland, Italy, and Germany, with a needle suspended by fibres of silk vibrating in the plane of the horizon, and thus giving the horizontal component of the magnetic intensity. As the dip was noted and recorded simultaneously, the data were thus afforded of computing the total intensity, and of this Major Sabine has availed himself. The needle was vibrated in going and returning at Milan, from whence Gay-Lussac infers the invariability of its intensity; for although vibrated after their return to Paris, no record of its vibration before they set out is preserved. The number of the stations was nineteen, and no corrections appear to have been applied for variations of temperature or differences of arcs of vibration.

The series of observations next in order, comprises those made by Major (then Captain) Sabine himself, in the Polar seas, during the years 1818, 1819, and 1820. The instruments employed in the observations, on which Major Sabine appears to set the greatest value, were a dipping needle belonging to his brother-in-law, Mr. Browne, made by Nairne & Blunt, and in every respect similar to one made under the directions of the celebrated Cavendish, and described by him in the 66th vol. of the Phil. Trans., and three horizontal needles, with an apparatus for their vibration. The dipping needle had probably long come to its state of permanent magnetism, and vibrated about eight minutes before coming to rest. The observations made with it were originally published, partly in the Philosophical Transactions for 1819, partly in the appendix to the narrative of the voyage of 1819—20, and partly in Major Sabine's work, entitled 'The Pendulum and other Experiments,' published in 1825; but there was no correction then made for variations of temperature or of the arcs of vibration. These corrections have been supplied in the present Report. The observations with the three horizontal needles would have been highly valuable, had the expedition succeeded in penetrating the ice, and returning by the Pacific; but in consequence of the dip so nearly approaching 90° in the Polar seas, the cosine of that arc being cipher, and a slight change of the arc when near that value greatly changing the cosine, these observations are useless as regards the determination of the total magnetic intensity. While speaking of them, however, Major Sabine takes occasion to mention one of the neatest methods of determining the dip from the horizontal intensity which it has ever been our good fortune to meet with: and when we remember the beautifully simple formulæ which Prof. Lloyd used as a guide in his ingenious instrument for determining the dip and magnetic intensity by the same observations, we are tempted to surmise that this method of determining the dip from the horizontal intensity is a gem from the same rich treasury. Major Sabine merely says, when introducing it, that these observations of the horizontal intensities may serve an incidental purpose of some value, which did not occur to him when the record of the observations was printed; and which is worth noticing, as it may be useful on similar occasions, should there be such. We feel convinced, that if long familiarity with this method had not tended to blunt his perception of its beauty, he would have thought it of sufficient importance to lay claim to it, either for himself or for his friend, as one of those instances in which he had deserved well of science, by replacing an observation requiring a very expensive instrument, great nicety of adjustment, and much careful manipulation, by an observation made with comparatively little trouble, with an instrument of not the tenth part of the cost, and with little fear of error. The method admits of a very easy explanation. That part of a force which is effective in a direction making a given angle with the force, is had by multiplying the force by the cosine of that angle; hence, if I be the total intensity, and D the dip of the needle at any place, $I \times \cos D$ will be the value of the horizontal intensity. Again, from the common theory of a pendulous vibrating body, it is easily proved that the same unvaried pendulous masses, if set vibrating under the influence of different forces, would so vibrate, that the squares of the times of vibration would be in the reciprocal ratio of the forces; hence, then, if the same needle, when vibrated at that part of the earth where the horizontal intensity is taken as unity, and where the dip is D°, vibrate in the time T″, and in the station where we want to ascertain the value of the dip D′ it vibrate in the time T′, and the horizontal intensity thence deduced be I′, we have $T''^2 : T'^2 :: I' \times \cos D' : 1 \times \cos D$; thence, by multiplying extremes, and dividing by known mean $T''^2$ and by I′, we get $\cos D' = \frac{\cos D \times T''^2}{I' \times T'^2}$, which gives the value of D′ without the aid of the dipping needle.

The set of observations next in order, are those of Hansteen, conducted in Norway, from 1819 to 1824, at thirty-seven stations, and extended round the shores of the Gulf of Bothnia in 1825; the determinations of that year being thirty in number. The needle which he employed, furnished by Dollond, is described as possessing remarkably steady magnetism. The character of this observer is too well known and too highly estimated to need any comment.

Capt. Ericksen determined the intensity at three stations on the shores of the Baltic and in Germany in 1824; Messrs. Keilhau and Boeck at nine stations in Germany in 1825—1827; and M. Erman at two stations in Germany in 1826; all these observations were made at the instance and with the instruments of Hansteen. They were connected with Paris through Christiania.

Sabine's observations of 1822—1823 were made during two voyages, in which he was furnished with a vessel by the British government for the purpose of determining the earth's ellipticity, by means of the pendulum, at stations at remote latitudes from each other. The first voyage was to the equatorial shores of the African and American continents. The second, to the north of Europe, Greenland, and Spitzbergen. These observations were made with six horizontal needles, and were published in 1825, with the account of the pendulum experiments. They received additional value from the fact that one of Major Sabine's stations (Drontheim) was visited by Hansteen in 1825, two years after Sabine had been there, and became therefore a station common to their respective series; and Hansteen was thus enabled to compute the values of the intensity at all the stations visited by Sabine, relatively to the force at Drontheim, which he had already compared with the force at Paris by observations, at Drontheim and Christiania, and at Christiania and Paris. A tabular view of the results thus calculated by Hansteen, and observed by Sabine, is given, and the agreement of them is very remarkable; the slight defect in Hansteen's results, arising partly from corrections used by Sabine, partly from Hansteen's value of the intensity at Drontheim being by a small quantity less than Sabine's. Three corrections were made for deducing these intensities from the observations; first, for alteration of the intensity of the needle used on the principle of a uniform gain or loss, when necessary; the second, to diminish the observed times of vibration to the corresponding times in infinitely small arcs. This, we presume, was done by the aid of the table published in the 'Voyage de Dentrecasteaux,' which Major Sabine, in another place, says he finds to reduce the vibrations so nearly to an equality, as fully to justify its employment. The third, to reduce to a standard temperature; the co-efficients for the formula having been determined experimentally for each needle.

The observations of Captain, since Admiral Lütke, of the Russian Imperial Navy, were made during the years from 1826 to 1829, in a voyage of circumnavigation in H.I.M. ship *Siniavin*. The stations at which he made observations are fifty-one in number, of which sixteen were at various land stations, and thirty-five at geographical positions at sea. In consequence of the apparatus for vibrating his needles having been broken to pieces in coming by the mail coach from London to Portsmouth, he had not the means of vibrating them at that station before proceeding upon his voyage, and thus verifying, by a similar vibration on his return, the permanency of the magnetic intensity of his needles. The first station, then, at which he was able to observe, was in Kamtschatka; yet, in consequence of their having been vibrated there three times at distant intervals at the harbour at St. Peter and St. Paul, the rate of alteration of magnetic intensity was ascertained for an interval of time comprising the observations at eighteen of the stations; for all the observations made before this the rate deduced from the first and second vibrations at the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul was used; and for one after (Manilla), the rate deduced from the second and third times of vibration there, was used. The times of vibration were on all occasions derived from the mean of 250 consecutive vibrations, commencing with an arc of 30°, and usually ending with an arc of 10°. No correction has been applied by M. Lenz, who discussed these observations, for the variation of the arc. But the determination of the correction for variation of temperature, which was made for each needle by observations at St. Petersburgh at the conclusion of the voyage, disclosed a curious anomaly for one of the needles,—viz. the one which was of a rhomboidal shape. The correction for the time is found generally to require to be added when the temperature is diminished, but for this needle it was found necessary to subtract the correction. This would, according to the received opinion, indicate a decrease of magnetic force corresponding with a decrease of temperature, whereas the ordinary indication is an increase, and such was the indication of all the others. Major Sabine intimates that such an anomaly had once before come under his own observation; and says that M. Kupffer has noticed a similar one, if he remember rightly.

Capt. King's observations were made during the years 1826—1830, at the request of M. Hansteen, and with an instrument furnished by him for determining horizontal intensities, by the vibration of a magnetic cylinder. These observations were made during the progress of a survey of the coast of South America, from Rio de Janeiro to Valparaiso, carried on under the orders of the British government. The magnetic cylinder, furnished by Hansteen to Captain King, suffered a very considerable loss of magnetism during the four years it was employed by that officer. Its time of vibration, on the 22nd of March 1826, in the garden of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, was 734.5 seconds; being again vibrated in the same place on the 24th of January 1831, its time was found to be increased to 775.8 seconds. So great a change in the magnetic intensity of the instrument would, in ordinary circumstances, have prevented any useful or satisfactory conclusion from being deduced from the observations. Fortunately, from the nature of the duties in which Capt. King was engaged, he had occasion to return frequently to the same anchorages, and as he was extremely careful to re-examine the magnetic state of the cylinder on every such return, we have the means of knowing, by direct observation, the amount of the loss of power it sustained in several portions of the whole time of its employment. By this means the observations at the eleven stations on the east and west coast of South America are so linked together, that we may compute and assign the intensity at each, in reference to one selected, and regarded in the same light as a first meridian, by adopting a method similar to that used in determining chronometrically difference of longitudes. This primary station in these observations was Rio de Janeiro, at which the cylinder was vibrated first in August 1826, then in September 1827, again in December 1828, and although no direct observation was had there after that date, yet a comparison having been previously established between that station and Monte Video, an observation made at the latter, on the 1st of June 1830, gave the intensity at that date, as the result of a simple computation, with as much certainty as if it had been directly observed at Rio. The intervals between these four dates include the whole of the South American observations; and the total alteration of the magnetic intensity in each interval was distributed among the observations comprised in that interval by interpolation, according to the position in time of the respective observations in the interval. There being no obvious indication that the diminution of intensity was other than uniform, that law of diminution was adopted as the basis of the distribu-

tion. Major Sabine, however, gives a table exhibiting the times of vibration at Rio corresponding to these four dates, both with respect to the horizontal vibrations and those of the dipping needles, with the corrections for variations of the arc of vibration and of the temperature, in order that all who are interested in the results may judge for themselves. The results of Capt. King's observations are then reduced to the general scale of comparison in use among magnetical observers, in which the number, 1.3482, represents the intensity at Paris. This is done by showing that 0.884 is the representative of the intensity at Rio, by a mean of four determinations, by Freycinet, Lütke, Erman, and Fitzroy.

In 1827, Major Sabine made two sets of observations, one in the magnetic cabinet of M. Arago, at Paris, the other in the garden of the Horticultural Society, at Chiswick, near London. The object was to compare the magnetic intensities at London and Paris, and thus to connect into one system the observations of almost all continental philosophers who used the intensity at Paris as the basis of their numerical scales of intensities, and of the English on the other hand, who all used the intensity at London as the basis of their scales: thus introducing into this science a confusion or perplexity something similar to what arises in geography from several nations using the meridians of their principal observatories as that from which they begin to reckon their longitudes. It will be readily understood that since there is no known absolute or invariable magnetic force, the scales of numbers adopted by different observers must be all relative, and the intensity at some one place must be used as the means of comparing the others numerically; Major Sabine expresses a hope that the researches of M. Gauss, or of some other philosopher, will soon put us in possession of some absolute standard of magnetic intensity. In the mean time, his notice of these observations of 1827 is interesting in many particulars: first, it clearly details the steps by which the comparison was made; then it puts us in possession of the reason why the number 1.3482 had been almost universally used as the expression for the magnetic intensity at Paris; and, lastly, it gives much interesting collateral information. We shall endeavour to put our readers in possession of a summary.

Six needles were used; by a mean of the results thus obtained, it appears that if the horizontal intensity at London in 1827 were represented by unity, the number representing that at Paris would be 1.0714; incidentally, Major Sabine mentions that he believes the experiments on which this result depended, and which were published in detail in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1827, were the first published experiments in which a correction for differences of temperature was introduced. The dip in London, in August 1828, was found by observations made by Major Sabine and Mr. Douglas, in the garden at Chiswick, to be 69° 46′.9: no direct observation of the dip at Paris for the same date was made, but by observed dips by Arago in 1825 and 1830, and Humboldt and Matthieu in 1826 and 1827, the annual rate of decrease of the dip at Paris being 2′.8, and these observations having been all made in the magnetic cabinet of Arago, the mean amount of the dip, in August 1828, is deduced, 67° 51′.2; thence are inferred the dips at London and at Paris in 1827, the date of the before-mentioned observations; and then the numbers representing the *horizontal* intensities at these two places being divided by the tabular cosines of the respective dips, we get numbers denoting the total relative magnetic intensities, and these numbers give the total force at Paris to the total force at London as 1 : 1.018. Hence, if we take any other number than unity to represent the total force at Paris, we must multiply that number by 1.018 to get the proportionate number for representing the total force at London. M. de Humboldt had determined that the total force at Paris was, to the total force at a certain place in Peru, where the dip was 0, as 1.3482 to 1.000. The reason why the force at that place in Peru was taken as unity was, that it was supposed that an equal intensity, being the smallest on any part of the globe, prevailed at all places where the needle had no dip; subsequent experience, however, has shown that the lines of intensity follow a very different course from the lines of dip; so that, in retaining unity for the expression of the intensity at that place in Peru, we are under the necessity of using numbers less than unity to express the force at many other intertropical parts of the earth, and even at one place beyond the tropic. Such is the origin of the number 1.3482, employed by observers generally as expressing the force at Paris. The proportionate number for London is 1.372, and hence, by multiplication by that number, can be got the proportionate numbers for all places included in the observations of those who denote the force at London by unity. There is an error, however, in assuming the intensity at any one place as constant for any considerable number of years, resulting from the secular change in the intensity, of the amount of which philosophers have as yet no definite knowledge.

In the spring of 1828, Hansteen and Sabine determined in a similar manner the ratio of the horizontal intensity at London and Christiania. By a mean of their comparative observations the horizontal intensity at London is found to be to the horizontal force at Christiania as 1 : 0.9147; and since we have seen above that the horizontal force at Paris is to horizontal force at London as 1.0714 : 1, hence horizontal force at Paris to horizontal force at Christiania is as 1.0714 : 0.9147, or as 1 : 0.8537. About the same time (Spring of 1828), Hansteen observed the dip at Christiania 72° 16′.2, the dip at the same time at Paris may be considered as 67° 52′.5, hence, dividing the numbers for the horizontal intensities by the cosines of the respective dips, we have the total intensity at Paris to that of Christiania as 1.3482 : 1.423. M. Hansteen had determined the number for Christiania in 1825, by a direct comparison, to be 1.419.

In the year 1827 Keilhau made a number of observations upon magnetic intensity at twenty stations in a voyage to Finmarken and Spitzbergen with an horizontal apparatus of M. Hansteen's, and a five-inch dip-circle and two needles made by Dollond. Greater differences of intensity between stations near each other are found in these results than are usually met with. This is in part to be attributed to local circumstances, but it is probable that a considerable portion of them is to be attributed to the inadequacy of the dipping needle to give results sufficiently exact for computations respecting intensity in a part of the earth where a small error in the dip will induce a very considerable error in the deduced intensity. His two dipping needles frequently differed from twenty to thirty minutes at the same station.

In the years 1828, 1829, and 1830, M. Hansteen and Lieut. Due, proceeded on a scientific tour through the north of Europe and Siberia connected with magnetic researches; they were accompanied by M. Erman, of Berlin, in the whole of the outward part of their progress, but he parted from them when they were about to return; and he proceeded by Ochozk to Kamtschatka, where he embarked for Europe, thus completing the circuit of the globe.* The history of the origin and progress of this journey is highly interesting: the following is a sketch of it. M. Hansteen in 1819 published his celebrated work on the magnetism of the earth. In this he collected into one view a larger body of observations on the dip and variation than had been brought together by any previous philosopher, and by subjecting them to a close examination, drew this conclusion in regard to the intensity—that a centre, or pole, as it may be termed, of magnetic intensity must exist in the north of Siberia, less powerful, but otherwise similar to that well known to exist in the north of America; and that the lines of equal intensity would be found to arrange themselves round the Siberian centre in a manner similar to that in which they were arranged around the centre of greater force in America. At the time Hansteen drew this inference, not a single observation of the intensity had been made nearer than Berlin on the one side, and Mexico on the other. This attracted universal attention on the Continent, and the utmost desire prevailed that a conclusion so remarkable and so important, if true, should be put to the direct test of experiment. To accomplish this surpassed the means of individuals: and, highly to its honour, the Storthing or parliament of Norway, by a unanimous vote, furnished the funds requisite for this important undertaking. Hansteen, accompanied by Lieut. Due, proceeded, at his country's expense, and with every facility which the Russian government could afford him, on a journey expressly for magnetic purposes through the Russian dominions in the north of Europe and Asia. At St. Petersburgh he was joined by M. Erman, of Berlin, who was proceeding on a similar mission to the same countries. The three gentlemen travelled together to Siberia, taking the same observations everywhere, but M. Hansteen and Lieut. Due on the one part, and Erman on the other, taking them quite independently each of the other. They traversed the whole of the north of Europe longitudinally, and descended the rivers Oby and Janesei towards the polar circle, with the view of determining the latitude and longitude of the Siberian pole or centre of magnetic intensity; and its general phenomena were found to correspond in a very remarkable degree with the anticipations of Hansteen, its true position not being more than about 60° to the east of that previously assigned by him. The stations at which Hansteen and Due observed, and which are inserted in the tables in the second section of the Report, were 80 in number; those of Erman are 98, and 46 are common to both sets; there are also four land determinations by Erman on his homeward voyage, viz. Sitka, St. Francisco in California, Otaheite, and Rio de Janiero; he also made a very extensive series of intensity observations on board ship, in his passage home, having placed his dipping needle on an apparatus contrived to neutralize the effect of the ship's motion. Hansteen and Due were provided with a dip-circle and two needles by Gambey, and with M. Hansteen's apparatus for horizontal vibration, the needle which they used having attained a state of almost invariable intensity, a circumstance rendering their determinations invaluable. This was tested by an experience of sixteen years. The correction which he used for temperature was put to the severe test of being applied to correct observations made at the same place in temperatures differing by fully 90°, and making them exactly agree. Erman's instruments were of the same valuable kind as Hansteen's, and he gave the most decisive proof of his skill in using them. Both gentlemen, with the frankness and true liberality which characterize men of genius, communicated their observations to Major Sabine before they could themselves publish them completely, with permission to make any use of them which he might deem advantageous to science, or useful to those engaged in these pursuits. The observations of Erman did not reach him until he had placed the manuscript of his report in the hands of the Secretary of the Association, and therefore too late to give the historical notice of them, except in a short note, but, fortunately, in time to distribute the matter through the tables.

In the year 1829, M. Kupffer proceeded, by order of the emperor of Russia, upon a scientific journey to the Caucasus. He used two horizontal needles, with one of which he was furnished by Hansteen, with the other by Major Sabine. He employed them between May and August, at stations at St. Petersburgh, Moscow, Stovropol, two stations in the Caucasus, Toganrog and Nicolaieff. In the printed account of them which he had kindly transmitted to Major Sabine, the correction for temperature had not been made, but fortunately the differences of temperature were not considerable. At one of the stations in the Caucasus the dip had not been observed, therefore no total intensity could be computed; and some mistake as to the observations at Moscow appearing to have occurred, as the results of them were quite inconsistent with the comparative intensities of St. Petersburgh and Moscow, as determined by Hansteen and Erman, Major Sabine has not inserted them in the tables. In so doing he has followed the example of Hansteen, who has omitted these observations of Kupffer in his account of his researches; thus proving that he had some reason to doubt their correctness.

In the years 1829 and 1830, M. Quetelet, director of the Royal Observatory at Brussels, made observations on the horizontal intensity at several stations in Germany and the Netherlands, with an apparatus similar to Hansteen's, and two needles, and in France, Switzerland, and Italy with four needles.

* For review of Erman's valuable work, see Athenæum, Nos. 484, 5, 6.

He has only given the dip, either directly taken or deduced from the observations of others, for ten stations; these, therefore, only were available for the purposes of Major Sabine. Having vibrated his needles in Paris in 1830, his values of the intensity are deduced by direct comparison.

Mr. David Douglas having undertaken a journey to the N.W. coast of America for botanical and geographical purposes, during the years between 1829 and 1834, and having been supplied with instruments for part of the scientific objects of his journey, by the Secretary of State for our Colonies; upon his lamented death, in the Spring of 1834, at Owhyhee, his papers on scientific subjects were, on their arrival in England, placed in Major Sabine's hands to report on them to government. A full report was presented to Lord Glenelg, the present Secretary for the Colonies, but it remains unpublished; and as the scientific world have therefore no other means of access to them, Major Sabine enters more at length into the notice which he gives of the observations of Mr. Douglas, connected with magnetic intensity. He was furnished with a dip-circle by Dollond, of 11¼ inches in diameter, with a needle on Mayer's principle: also with four of the needles which had been used by Major Sabine in 1822 and 1823, viz. Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 6; their times of vibration were ascertained by Mr. Douglas in 1828 and 1829, previously to his leaving England. In May 1830 they were vibrated at Oahu, one of the Sandwich Islands, and between September 1830 and February 1831 at four stations in North America, where the dip was also observed, viz. Fort Vancouver, Cape Disappointment, Monterey, and St. Francisco, as well as at several other stations at which the dip was not observed. In February 1831 he sent Nos. 3 and 4 home in order to have the permanency of their magnetism ascertained. Upon examination by Major Sabine, No. 3 had slightly gained, and No. 4 had slightly lost magnetic force. When not in use these were kept in the same case, with their opposite poles in contact; and in a similar way Nos. 5 and 6 were kept in another case. Major Sabine says that he has elsewhere remarked, that when needles are so put together the weaker often gains, and the stronger loses magnetic force for a time, and such appears to have happened in this case; it was not until 1829 that 3 and 4 were thus paired, having been each previously paired with other needles whose magnetic force more nearly coincided with theirs respectively. Hence he concludes that the one began to gain and the other to lose from that time, and the variation was probably not uniformly distributed over the time, but, rather, the whole took place in the earlier part of the interval. When needles are so paired, they should always be used together, and their combined result used as one determination. For, since one gains nearly as much as the other loses, though they separately give different results, yet their mean is what each would give if unchanged. This was found on trial at London to be so with those needles; and the intensities calculated by their combined indications at the Sandwich Islands and at the North American stations, were found to be almost identical with those given by Nos. 5 and 6. This was a very fortunate circumstance, for as Nos. 5 and 6 could not be found among Mr. Douglas's effects when they reached England, there was no other way of testing their permanency than by a comparison of their results with those of 3 and 4. The special objects of Mr. Douglas's mission requiring him to make frequent excursions on foot into the interior, in California, and on the rivers tributary to the Columbia, he could only use the horizontal needles in these, as the dip-circle was not sufficiently portable to be taken with him. There are eighteen stations at which he used the horizontal apparatus alone, lying between 34½° and 54½° N. lat., and all nearly in the same meridian, viz. between 119° and 124° W. long. from Greenwich. To get the total intensities from these, it was necessary to compute the dips from the dips observed at other and near stations. Observations on the intensity in that part of the world are so rare, that Major Sabine conceived them too valuable to be omitted: he has therefore undergone the labour of this very troublesome computation, and has inserted a separate table of the results, with a brief notice of the principles he used, and the manner in which he made the computations. In this sketch, however, we could not hope to make this computation interesting, or, indeed, intelligible to our ordinary readers. The last observations recorded in Mr. Douglas's books are those which he made on the dip at Byron's Bay, and on the force with needles 5 and 6, at the same place, as also in the crater of the volcano Kiraueah, in 1834, soon after his arrival at Owhyhee. He had, in his letters, spoken of some observations of great interest, viz. those on the dip variation and intensity at the summit of Mowna Kaah, nearly 14,000 feet above the sea, and at other elevations exceeding 10,000 feet. As a general conclusion, he says that he found little or no difference between these three phenomena at these heights, and near the sea. The notes Major Sabine sought for in vain among his papers; the only registers that were preserved being those in the crater of Kiraueah, 4,000 feet above the sea; these indicate a decidedly less intensity than on the sea side at Byron's Bay, a few miles distant, viz. as 1.059 : 1.098; but Kiraueah being a recent volcano, this cannot be considered simply as the diminution of intensity due to the elevation.

In the years from 1831 to 1836, Captain Fitzroy, R.N. and the officers of H.M. ship *Beagle*, were employed in the survey of the coasts of South America, and in a voyage of circumnavigation, the primary object of which was the determination of differences of longitude by a number of chronometers. To the exertions of these gentlemen are we indebted for a series of magnetical observations which Major Sabine characterizes as among the most important contributions to the science. Captain Fitzroy had furnished himself with a dipping needle by Gambey, whose instruments of this kind, though not always without fault, are decidedly the best that are made. He had another also by Dollond. For the observations on intensity, he received from Capt. King the cylinder before spoken of as used in his observations in 1826 to 1830, and which he had received from Hansteen. This needle, although its magnetism was so rapidly diminishing when used by Capt. King, appears to have nearly attained its state of permanent magnetism, when Capt. Fitzroy received it. This was most fortunate, for the service in which he was engaged did not admit of the frequent return to one post, to test its rate of change, which was a matter of so much importance as regarded Captain King's observations. Major Sabine takes occasion in speaking of this in the account which he has prepared of these observations, to notice how very disheartening such a circumstance must be to officers or others engaged in valuable researches, when they have no means of knowing whether their entire labour will not be rendered fruitless by a change in their instruments, the kind or amount of which they have no means of ascertaining; and he suggests the importance of having a national depôt of instruments, where regular journals of their state and changes, with a precise description of each, should be kept, as also the services it had been engaged in, and those only which could be depended upon given out to persons engaged in the public service, and not until everything essential to their use had been determined and noted. In this depôt, too, facilities for comparative observations should be afforded, for noting or correcting the errors of the instruments of private persons who were engaged in such scientific pursuits as required those precautions. The observations of Capt. Fitzroy include 27 stations, of which 24 in the southern hemisphere distributed throughout its longitudes, throw very considerable light on the systems of intensities in these regions. As they appear in the tables of Major Sabine's report, they have been corrected for the arc and for temperature. The formula at the top of page 11, of the discussion of Capt. Fitzroy's observations, contains a typical error which is not noted as an erratum, and which might mislead an incautious person; the algebraic mark for multiplication × has been put for that of addition +, between 1 and the decimal 0.000068.

In the year 1832, Rudberg observed at five stations on the continent of Europe, of which Paris was one. The observations appear to have been made with great care, and the results are corrected for temperature.

In 1835 and 1836, Mr. Lloyd and Major Sabine, at the request of the British Association, undertook a survey of the magnetic dip and intensity in the British Islands. In consequence, the intensity was determined at thirty stations in Ireland, by these gentlemen jointly, in 1835; and in 1836, Major Sabine determined it for twenty-five stations in Scotland. There is a full account of these in the volumes of the Reports of the Association for these years. The intensity at one central position in each country was the result at which they aimed; and this result alone has been entered in the tables of this Report. Our readers will doubtless remember, that in this survey was first used the beautiful contrivance of Mr. Lloyd, by which two small pieces of wire, inserted in holes at a distance from the axis of a dipping-needle, were, by the alteration they caused in the angle of the dip, made to subserve the purpose of deducing both the dip and intensity from the same observation, by the aid of very simple formulæ.

In the winter of 1836, when Captain James Ross, R.N., undertook a voyage to Davis's Straits, to relieve the crews of the whalers which had been detained in the ice, he made it subservient to the purposes of science, and in particular to magnetism. His observations upon intensity were made with two horizontal needles, in an apparatus similar to Hansteen's. The magnetism of one remained quite steady during the voyage; the second sustained a loss of power, which a comparison of the results showed to have taken place between Orkney and Greenland. His dip circle was four inches in diameter, and gave very consistent results at the same station; and yet it was probably subject to an instrumental error,—since at Westburne Green it constantly gave the dip a few minutes higher than the truth. As Major Sabine had no means of detecting the origin of this error, and since every precaution which the well-known skill and experience of Captain James Ross could ensure was used, Major Sabine thought it best to insert the observations just as they were made, without any correction. Some of the observations, however, at Greenland, were omitted; for in these places a very slight error in the observed dip will cause a very considerable one in the calculation of the total intensity; and these observations were inconsistent, some of them giving the dip higher at the southernmost station, whereas it should be less; and this the horizontal vibrations proved, which were not subject to the same sources of error.

Major Estcourt, during the year 1836, carried on the magnetical experiments which were made during the survey of the navigation of the river Euphrates, conducted by Col. Chesney. He had been furnished with a good dip-circle by Robinson, and an apparatus similar to M. Hansteen's, furnished with eight horizontal needles. Numerous observations were made with these at Port William and Bussora, the manuscript account of which was sent to Major Sabine, by the President of the Board of Control, to prepare for publication, in the official account of the expedition. The needles were also sent to him. Unfortunately, the manuscript which contained the times of vibrations of the needles, before the departure of the expedition from Europe, was on board the *Tigris* steamer, when she was lost in the Euphrates, and no duplicate had been preserved. On receiving the needles, however, Major Sabine recognized two of them as belonging to Mr. Lloyd, and as having been employed by that gentleman and by himself in Ireland. Major Sabine had thus fortunately a record of their rate; and upon vibrating them in Sussex, he perceived, with much satisfaction, that they preserved their magnetism either wholly or nearly unaltered. They were also sent to Professor Lloyd, who, upon vibrating them in the very place where they had formerly been used, established the fact, that their force was almost identically what it had been. The other six needles having been compared with those, the results of two were found to correspond. The intensities at Port William and Bussora, as they are inserted in the tables, were derived from these four; and by this fortunate accident they were preserved:—another powerful illustration of the justness of Major Sabine's views respecting the necessity of a national instrumental depôt.

Captain De Freycinet, with a liberality which Major Sabine justly and warmly enlogizes, placed at his disposal his magnetic observations made during the voyage of circumnavigation, performed by him in the *Uranie*, during the years 1817 to 1821. "The world," says Major Sabine, "hears more than enough

of the jealousies and enmities which too often disfigure the history, and embitter the pursuits, of science; it is right that the instances to the contrary should not always be passed in silence." Major Sabine then proceeds to mention the principles on which he had reduced the observations of M. de Freycinet, according to the wish expressed by him. His needle No. 9 had been injured at the Isle of France, by having been incautiously brought too near a powerful magnetic battery; but Major Sabine having minutely examined them, found that its indications up to that period could be relied on, and these he inserts. Nos. 8 and 7 had each sustained a loss of power; and No. 8 rather more than No. 7: and he proceeds to state why he interpolates for No. 7, by distributing its loss equally through the interval in which it had occurred; but assigns to No. 8 a proportion of the whole loss, through the first fourteen months, double of that which he afterwards allowed; and after these allowances, he finds the results to accord, both by comparing the results of each needle with the other, and their indications at Rio in 1817 with those in 1821. He then inserts two tables, the one containing the observations as he had received them from M. de Freycinet, without alteration of any kind,—the other containing the computed results.

Major Sabine expresses much regret at not having it in his power to include in his Report the observations made in India by Capt. Jules de Blossville, whose untimely death within the arctic circle he now fears is too certain.

In 1833 Mr. Forbes made a very numerous series of excellent determinations of horizontal intensity in different parts of Europe,—chiefly with a view to the influence of height on magnetic intensity. The dip was taken with a three-inch circle, but only at a few stations; and as Mr. Forbes has nowhere deduced the total intensities, Major Sabine has not placed his results in his table, as he was unwilling to make deductions for him, which he had not made himself; but he has heard, and hopes, he is engaged in making a series of dip observations as extensive as his observations on horizontal intensity.

We regret that, when naming the different contributions to this valuable, as well as interesting, branch of science, Major Sabine has omitted all mention of the American contributors. Professor Bache, of Philadelphia, and Professor Henry, of Albany, have not been entirely negligent in furnishing their quota in this branch of science; and in a country like America, where the few scientific men are struggling to awaken public opinion on the importance of these subjects, an encouraging word from the great scientific men of the mother country is hailed as a propitious omen, invigorates and enlivens those engaged, and ensures the countenance and pecuniary support of others who have not themselves time for these pursuits. In the American Philosophical Transactions for 1836, there is a very interesting paper containing an account of Experiments on Horizontal Intensities, at several places in the United States, with notices of the modes of experimenting, and investigation of correction for temperature, and comparison of experiments made in full and in rarefied air, by A. D. Bache, Professor of Nat. Phil. and Chemistry, and Edward H. Courtenay, Prof. of Mathematics in the University of Pennsylvania. This memoir contained records of many observations; and although we are aware the authors abstained from deducing the total intensities, because although they had observed and published the corresponding dips, yet they were not so well assured of their correctness as would be desirable for the purpose of deducing the total intensities from them, which only proved their extreme caution; yet we cannot help feeling that, for the reasons we have before given, and for some others, it would have been well if it had occurred to Major Sabine, at least to have alluded to the contributions of the Americans.

The second section of this Report is occupied with the tables and maps which are the results of the mass of observations which Major Sabine has collected and combined with such unwearied assiduity. The arrangement of the tables is very simple. I. The intensities are classed in zones,—the zones beginning with the highest in the northern, and descending to the lowest, and then ascending again to the highest in the southern; although in this, Bacon's famous maxim is literally, though not in spirit, reversed,—"Neque enim in plano via sita est, sed *ascendendo et descendendo*." The highest zone in the north begins with the intensities between 1.85 and 1.75, then from 1.75 to 1.65, and so on, descending by ten hundredths each zone, down to 0.871, which is the lowest, and then up again, through the intensities of the southern hemisphere. II. In each zone the table commences with the station nearest to Greenwich, and passes round the globe in an eastwardly direction, thus arranging the determinations in each particular zone, by the longitudes of the several stations. This arrangement is very clear, affords much satisfaction, and is a great help to the memory. III. In the maps, we have a projection of the intertropical regions, of the north circumpolar regions, and a map of the two hemispheres of the earth, the middle of each zone distinguished by a line, which, with the several stations, is marked so as to exhibit the results, and the persons who made the determinations. By different shadings of the map, also, the zones are distinguished into four groups, first, those in which the intensities are below 1.00, without any shade; second, lightest shade comprises regions in which the intensities are from 1.00 to 1.30; middle shade from 1.30 to 1.70; and then the deepest shade designates those regions in which the intensity exceeds 1.70.

The getting up of this Report reflects the highest credit on Major Sabine, and on all concerned. We have not yet noticed the third section, which contains the "general conclusions," but may do so hereafter.

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*Letters on Egypt, Edom, and the Holy Land.* By Lord Lindsay. 2 vols. Colburn.

Descriptions of "antres vast and deserts idle" have lost their zest of novelty; the Count de Forbin, who was so horrified twenty years ago by the appearance of a waiting maid in a pink spencer among the ruins of Thebes, would now find Luxor and Karnac regular places of fashionable resort. A trip to Jerusalem is a matter of less difficulty and danger than was a tour through Scotland within the memory of persons yet living, and it is very probable that many moons will not have passed before a steam-boat for Joppa will be advertised to start from the Tower stairs. Lord Lindsay is one of the first Eastern travellers whose narrative does not contain a single incident which can be tortured into romance; his tour was as destitute of "moving accidents by flood and field," as if he had been travelling in Yorkshire or Middlesex. Most of the places he visited have been repeatedly described; but he has gleaned some additional information respecting countries whose interest to us has been increased by recent events, and he has thrown new light on the administration of Mohammed Ali, and its effects on our relations with Syria and Egypt. In the notes we find some extracts from the journal of his Lordship's deceased companion, Mr. Ramsay, who seems to have been an intelligent observer: he gives us the following account of Mohammed Ali's fleet:—

"I had heard much of these vessels, and was prepared for their magnificence, and even for more than I found. The *show* certainly was very fine on the upper, the main, and the lower decks, everything being very spacious, clean, polished, and in order; the breadth of beam, and the total freedom from all (I should imagine even *necessary*) incumbrance, gave her a noble appearance; but one missed a great deal; there was no accommodation for officers—all are down in the cock-pit, and thus the whole range of the decks is thrown open from poop to stern in both decks. The officers seemed to be very poorly off, and, as this was not a *show* part of the ship, it stood no comparison with the rest. The men not dining, like us, at tables, the lower deck was free from that incumbrance, like the main deck. There was not the finish which characterises everything in our ships, or the air of aptness and congruity which ought to pervade it. The crew are 1100, but a useless set; every gun requires a marine to stand over the men with a musket, and eight small cannon are planted abaft to command the ship in case of a mutiny, I suppose."

From the same source we shall take the description of the Pacha's polytechnic school:—

"At Boulac saw the Polytechnic School, formerly Ismael Pasha's Palace, a splendid establishment. The boys are neatly enough dressed, and, except the tarboosh and slippers, might pass for Europeans. They appeared, some of them that we saw, very quick and intelligent, and I am told that their examination surpasses most such in England in outward show, but it is all head-knowledge. They apply to algebra and abstruse mathematics. Their benches, slates, &c. were quite European. The printing-press we also saw, and were much pleased. They print a paper every week, and we saw several books in hand; the Arabian Nights is just finished; the impressions are, some of them, beautiful. One venerable old savant, with spectacle on nose, appeared to be inspecting, and deeply immersed in, some old chronicle: such an individual is much more striking and characteristic-looking in the handsome old Turkish dress he wore, with a reverend beard, than any dapper old European, in a snuffy brown coat out at the elbows, and glorying in unbrushed classic dust."

Mr. Lane's account of the Egyptian magician's wondrous exhibitions with the fluid mirror (See *Athenæum*, No. 476), induced Lord Lindsay to witness his performance. It was, on the whole, a complete failure:—

"The first person we summoned was the Rev. —— ——, a mutual friend of William's and mine, and the first person who told him of these magicians; he was described, upon the whole, accurately, but this was the only successful summons; the spirits either would not come, or appeared by proxy, to the sad discomposure of our Arab Glendower, who, it is but fair to state, attributed the failure to its being Ramadan. I tried him with Daniel Lambert, who, I was informed, was a thin man, and with Miss Biffin, who made her appearance with arms and legs. He has been equally unsuccessful with a party of Americans—this is odd enough when one considers how strongly Mr. Salt, Lord Prudhoe, and Major Felix, who subjected him to long and repeated examinations, were impressed with the belief of his supernatural powers."

Few travellers have given us any satisfactory account of the Berbers, the original inhabitants of Northern Africa, and probably the predecessors of the Pharaohs, and their people in the valley of the Nile. Mr. Ramsay's notice of them, though brief, is interesting:—

"The people here (Philoë) are of the Berber race, or Nubians, a very fine nation. No people have ever struck me so much; they are almost invariably handsome and elegant in their form and features, with an expression of high intelligence and mind I never saw in other people of their rank. Talking phrenologically, their heads are *perfect*, and I cannot help thinking their capabilities for civilization very great. They seem to have a great deal of ready wit and humour, to judge by the constant repartees and roars of laughter; and their songs are beautiful.

"Jan. 12, Kalabshi. The natives are the most savage uncivilized looking beings one could wish to see. They grow darker at each village, but have by no means the attributes of genuine Nubians; their hue is more like that of a very dirty collier in England, or a sweep, than the pure, shining, polished skin of the true breed. The little dingy naked children, running away to hide themselves, or staying to joke and laugh at us, which they do with all their heart and soul, as different in appearance as in manners from their neighbours south of Essouan, have a very savage look."

Lord Lindsay did not find a visit to Petra so perilous an undertaking as it has been represented by other travellers; but he mentions a circumstance which sufficiently accounts for the dislike to visitors evinced by the Arabs in the neighbourhood of the rock-city:—

"Sheikh Hussein, who was in great alarm all the time we were at Petra, earnestly pressed our departure. Just before starting, some of the fellahs came to complain of his coming there; it was not his country, they said, and he had no business in it,—

nothing could be more true, and good reason had the poor men to complain, for the camels, before we discovered it, had destroyed a whole field of corn, turned loose, as they were, the moment we arrived; it was none of our fault, but we wished to reimburse the owner;—the fellahs, however, saying nothing about it, it was plain the field could not be their property, and what then could we do?—These fellahs, it seems to me, have been very much maligned; they have fire-arms, and know how to use them, but the only ground travellers have to speak ill of them is the report of the Bedouins, who hate all townsmen, and the resistance offered by them to Abou Raschid when he wished to bring Irby and Mangles and Mr. Bankes into Wady Mousa, without their consent,—their jealousy having been secretly inflamed, as it now appears, by Abou-djazi, a rival chief of the Alouins. Bedouins and Franks come into their territory, tread down their corn, and pay nothing, do not even apologize for their intrusion, and then go away and call them savages and devils, when the wonder is to me how they bear it so patiently.—They will not do so always, or I am much mistaken."

The tombs at Oom Keis, which is probably the ancient Gadara, are interesting relics of antiquity; they are probably similar to those mentioned in the Gospels as tenanted by demoniacs:—

"They are almost all inhabited, and the massive stone doors, that originally closed them, still move on their hinges, and open or shut at the option of the present owners. These doors are usually about five or six inches thick. The best specimen I saw was beautifully carved in four deep pannels, with a pseudo-knocker; a wreath between two roses was sculptured on the lintel, and the sarcophagus still retained its place within. We saw numbers of stone doors afterwards in the Hauran, all the Roman houses there having originally been furnished with them, but nowhere any so handsome as those of the sepulchres at Oom Keis. Over one of them I was shown a Greek inscription, purporting it to be the tomb of Gaius Annius Gaaniph, a curious mixture of Hebrew and profane names."

Palmyra has been often described, but the tomb of Manaius, one of its most interesting monuments, has been generally neglected. Of this edifice Lord Lindsay gives a very good account, which will enable readers to form some idea of the others, as they are all built on the same plan:—

"It is a lofty square tower, lessening by three courses of stone, like steps, at about a third of its height. An inscription in honour of the deceased is engraved on a tablet over the doorway. The principal apartment is lined with four Corinthian pilasters on each side, with recesses between them for mummies, the Egyptian mode of interment prevailing here,—each recess divided into five tiers by shelves, only one of which retains its position. A statue in a reclining posture lay at the end of the tomb between two semi-pillars; busts, with inscriptions in the Palmyrene character, range between them, just below the cornice, and this again supports a false sarcophagus, sculptured with four busts, and covered by an embroidered cushion, on which the effigy of a dead body seems once to have lain. Two smaller Ionic pillars flank the sarcophagus. Several other busts, all with Palmyrene inscriptions, are sculptured in relief over the door of entrance, and that of the staircase which leads to the upper story. The ceiling, broken through in the centre, but perfect at both ends, is sculptured all over with a beautiful pattern, tastefully coloured,—of white flowers on blue grounds, enclosed within small squares, and they within larger, formed by lines of deep brown crossing each other, with yellow knobs at the points of intersection. Towards each extremity of the ceiling, are two male busts, in Roman costume, on a blue ground, the colour as bright as if laid on yesterday. The cornice is beautiful,—the echinus or egg ornament, and roses between projecting modillions,—the same as that in the Library at Haigh, and which is found on almost every building at Palmyra and Baalbec. The upper and lower apartments display little or no ornament, except a pediment or two in the former. A doorway from the east led down by a flight of steps to the latter, the roof of which, forming the floor of the principal chamber, has fallen in. It has four large recesses for burial, on each side. The date of this edifice is A.D. 103."

We must also extract the description of the great temple at Baalbec; it is, though brief, more intelligible than Pococke's, which has been copied by almost all succeeding travellers:—

"As a site for this magnificent pile, a lofty platform was built of very massive stones, supported by two parallel vaulted passages, running from east to west, lofty, and of most beautiful workmanship, and connected with each other by a third passage, running at right angles to them from north to south. The grand entrance was from the east, by a flight of steps, leading to a portico flanked by handsome pavilions on the right and left. A lofty doorway introduced the visitor into a polygonal court, from which passing into a second, 350 feet square, and ascending a flight of steps, he proceeded under a double colonnade to the grand portico of the temple, consisting of two (or, perhaps, three) rows of columns, fifty or sixty feet in height, while the peristyle consisted, or was to consist, of sixteen, in length, on each side, and eight at the west end—all of the same gigantic proportions. Of the temple itself, if it was ever built, not a trace remains, except a line of stones that perhaps marked the cella. From the eastern landing-place to the western extremity of the temple, I found it 336 paces, or more than a thousand feet."

The value of these volumes is enhanced by the addition of a letter from Mr. Farren, late Consul General of Syria, which affords important information on the political condition of the Levant, and particularly on the questions at issue between the rulers of Turkey and Egypt. Mr. Farren gives a fearful account of the effects produced by Mohammed Ali's government in Syria. The horrors of the conscription are thus delineated:—

"The periods of the forced levies are kept secret, and generally commence on a Friday, when the mosques are resorted to. At the hour of prayer numerous parties of soldiers are distributed through the quarters of the cities, and intelligence is conveyed to them by the firing of a gun of the moment to commence. They then rush on all the citizens who may be in the streets, and drive or drag them struggling along to the great square of the Serai, when, having left them in its enclosure, they return to make fresh captives of all upon their routes. A short time suffices to spread a thrill of fear and despair throughout the city. Women may be seen rushing wildly through the streets, followed by their children, to seek the husband, son, or father, who but a few hours before had left them to provide for their daily wants, and now are separated, perhaps for ever, from their families without a parting benediction, or alleviating care or solace for their destitution. Within the enclosure, which files of armed troops surround, the wretched victims are crowded together, bowed down with despair, while, pressing upon every avenue, their wives and daughters and aged mothers may be seen, wildly darting their frenzied glances through the captives in search of a missing relative, or bursting into paroxysms of despair on beholding the lost objects of their fears; and, all around, the air is rent by the cries of these unfortunates, cursing, as I have heard them, the very name of their prophet, and invoking the Deity himself to avenge the cause of the poor and the oppressed. The wretched conscripts are taken immediately before the medical men of the army, and, unless physically disqualified, are sent off to the Castle, confined there, dressed as soldiers, and, in a week or fortnight, marched out of the place and drafted into the regiments."

The Consul General declares that the Pacha of Egypt is an enemy to the commerce and influence of Great Britain; his statements are very inconsistent with those published by Mr. Waghorn. Time will soon show which has the better claim to belief:—

"The personal privileges—on which the native respect for Europeans and their preservation from the tyranny of the authorities, as well as their security, comfort, and property as settlers and merchants in those parts, so much depend—have been systematically reduced and invaded, without redress; and the most petty excuses or complaints advanced in justification. British subjects have been kept under arrest, contrary to our treaties; and when I left Alexandria, there was one there from Syria, whose just pecuniary claims for wages, on the Government in Egypt, had been for months neglected, though his right was admitted by his own authorities; and he was then living as a pauper upon the allowance granted by our Government to distressed British subjects. The Consular residences have been forcibly entered, and that at Alexandria, during the Consul's absence, was publicly surrounded by troops; and a gentleman, who resided as a merchant there, felt himself compelled to leave the country rather than compromise the British name by delivering up to punishment, and perhaps to death, a female Christian servant of his, against whom no crime had been averred or proved."

Lord Lindsay has lost no opportunity of pointing out the literal fulfilment of prophecy, as displayed in the actual condition of Egypt, Edom, and Syria, and his observations on this subject may deserve the attention of biblical critics, especially as his Lordship has avoided hypothetical and forced interpretations.

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*List of New Books.*—James's Life and Times of Louis XIV., Vols. III. & IV., 8vo. 28*s.* bds.—Beck's Medical Jurisprudence, 6th edit. 8vo. 21*s.* bds.—Raikes's Visit to St. Petersburgh, the City of the Czar, 8vo. 12*s.* bds.—The Spirit of the East, Journal of Travels through Roumeli, by D. Urquhart, 2 vols. 8vo. 28*s.* bds.—The Call upon the Church, by Rev. W. Nicholson and W. Roberts, Esq., 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.* cl.—Not Tradition but Revelation, by P. N. Shuttleworth, fc. 3*s.* 6*d.* bds.—Parkinson's Hulsean Lectures, 1837, 8vo. 9*s.* cl.—Potter on Church Government, new edit. 12mo. 4*s.* cl.—Alexander's (Captain J. E.) Expedition of Discovery into the Interior of Africa, 2 vols. post 8vo. 21*s.* cl.—Loudon's Suburban Gardener, 8vo. 20*s.* cl.—Botany: Library of Useful Knowledge, 8vo. 4*s.* cl.—Geology as a Science, by John Rooke, 12mo. 6*s.* cl.—Griffith's Lectures on Confirmation, 2nd edit. 12mo. 3*s.* 6*d.* cl.—The Child's Own Bible, Old Testament Series, royal 8vo. 12*s.* 6*d.* cl.—New Duty of Man, 8vo. new edit. 9*s.* bd.—Model Lessons for Infant Schools, fc. 3*s.* cl.—Tableau of the Procession at Queen Victoria's Coronation, 14*s.* bds., 21*s.* on roller.—Major's Latin Grammar, 4th edit. 12mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* bd.—Memoirs of a Prisoner of State, translated by F. Prandi, 8vo. 10*s.* cl.—The Gradational Spelling-Book, by J. Fellows, 18mo. 1*s.* 6*d.* cl.—Stevenson's Civil Engineering of North America, 8vo. 12*s.* cl.—Britton's Dictionary of Architecture, royal 8vo. 56*s.* hf-bd.—Henderson's Arithmetical Architecture of the Solar System, 12mo. 1*s.* 6*d.* bds.—Blacklock's Treatise on Sheep, 18mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* cl.—Archbold's Criminal Law, by Jarvis, new edit. 12mo. 19*s.* bds.—Nugent's French Dictionary, square, new edit. 7*s.* 6*d.*—Plain Advice to all Persons on going to Law, 18mo. 2*s.* bds.—Bonnycastle's Arithmetic, by Rowbotham, new edit. 12mo. 3*s.* 6*d.* bds.—Trimmer's Ancient History, new edit. 18mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* hf-bd.—Beauties of the Isle of Wight, 18mo. 3*s.* swd.—The Oakleigh Shooting Guide, 3rd edit. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.* cl.—Democracy in Modern Communities, by M. G. Guizot, 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.* swd.—Freeling's London, Liverpool, and Manchester Railway Companion, 18mo. 5*s.* bd.—Robins's Coronation Procession of Queen Victoria, 9*s.* bds.—Scottish Land Tourist's Pocket Guide, 3rd edit. 32mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* cl.—Paul on the Ringworm, imp. 8vo. 6*s.* cl.—Spratt's Obstetric Tables, new edit. 2*l.* 5*s.* cl.—Wallace's Treatise on Venereal, new edit. 8vo. 12*s.* cl.—Wardroper on the Structure, Diseases, and Treatment of the Teeth, 8vo. 3*s.* cl.—Spooner's Panorama of the Queen's Coronation Procession, 6*s.* plain, 12*s.* coloured.—Curie's Practice of Homœopathy, 8vo. 9*s.* cl.

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## OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

We have just received a "*Prospectus of a National Association for the Encouragement and Protection of Authors* AND *Men of Talent and Genius.*" As the questions involved are important, not so much touching "men's business and bosoms" as their breeches pockets, for the parties propose to raise no less a sum than 200,000*l.* in shares of 10*l.* and 20*l.* each, we think it well to defer all serious comment on this strange scheme, until we have examined somewhat more carefully into the details. In the meantime, however, we cannot but observe on the distinction here so obviously drawn between authors and men of talent; nor can we understand why no fractional part of this 200,000*l.* worth of protection and encouragement is to be bestowed on men of learning; further, and most strange of all, that the first name on this Patronizing Committee is that of "His Grace the Duke of Rutland," and the last that of "Matthew Cotes Wyatt, Esq."! Surely no one can have mistaken the laughable announcement, in a late number of the *Monthly Chronicle*, of a "New Grand Acceleration Company, for the Promotion of the Speed of

Literature" for a serious project, and translated the pleasantry of the rhymester into dull prose:—

Loud complaints being made, in these quick-reading times,
Of too slack a supply, both of prose-works and rhymes,
A new Company, form'd on the keep-moving plan,
First proposed by the great firm of Catch-'em-who-can,
Beg to say they've now ready, in full wind and speed,
Some fast-going authors, of quite a new breed,—
Such as, not he who *runs*, but who *gallops*, may read.

It is true, in these days, such a drug is renown,
We've 'Immortals' as rife as M.P.'s about town;
And not a Blue's rout but can off-hand supply
Some invalid bard who 's 'insured not to die.'
Still, let England but once try *our* authors, she 'll find
How fast they 'll leave ev'n these Immortals behind;
And how truly the toils of Alcides were light,
Compared with *his* toil who can read all they write.

In fact, there's no saying, so gainful the trade,
How fast immortalities now may be made;
* * * * *
We, the Company,—still more to show how immense
Is the power o'er the mind of pounds, shillings, and pence;
And that not even Phœbus himself, in our day,
Could get up a *lay*, without first an *outlay*,—
Beg to add, as our literature soon may compare,
In its quick make and vent, with our Birmingham ware,
And it does n't at all matter, in either of these lines,
How *sham* is the article, so it but *shines*;—
As, the trinkets being made but to glitter and sell,
If you *call* the thing 'gold,' it will do just as well;—
We keep authors ready, all perched, pen in hand,
To write off, in any given style, at command.
No matter what bard, be he living or dead,
Ask a work from his pen, and 'tis done soon as said:
There being on th' establishment, six Walter Scotts,
One capital Wordsworth, and Southeys in lots;
Three choice Mrs. Nortons, all singing like syrens.
* * * * *
In short, whosoe'er the last 'Lion' may be,
We've a Bottom who 'll copy his roar to a T;
And so well, that not one of the buyers who 've got em
Can tell which is lion, and which only Bottom.

N.B.—The Company, since they set up in this line,
Have moved their concern, and are now at the sign
Of the Muse's Velocipede, *Fleet* Street, where all
Who wish well to the scheme are invited to call.

As we some time since brought under consideration (*Athen.* Nos. 547, 8,) Mr. Rowland Hill's plan for charging and collecting postage, and as the Committee appointed by the House of Commons to inquire into and report on the subject have concluded their labours, our readers may like to know the result. Generally, then, the Committee consider that Mr. Hill's strange and startling facts—for such, to us at least, they certainly were—have been borne out in evidence. They are of opinion, that the rate of postage is so high, as materially to interfere with and prejudice trade and commerce—that the commercial and trading classes have sought, and successfully, illicit means to evade the payment of this heavy charge for postage; and that all classes, for like reasons, correspond free of postage when possible—that the suppression of correspondence, to a vast extent, is another proved consequence—that reduction, therefore, in the rate of postage is advisable, and that to be effectual it must be great—that the rate should be uniform, regulated by weight, (the rate, however, not to increase in the direct ratio of the weight,) paid in advance—and that the most convenient mode of collecting it would be by means of stamps,—stamped covers, we presume. This, we conceive is substantially a recommendation of Mr. Hill's plan.

Our friends at Newcastle will be happy to hear that Professor Whewell has been elected to the Cambridge Professorship of Casuistry, vacant by the death of the Rev. Dr. Barnes, master of St. Peter's College.

The Council of the Institution of Civil Engineers have given notice that they will award, during the ensuing session, Telford premiums to communications of adequate merit on the following subjects:—The Nature and Properties of Steam, especially with reference to the quantity of Water in a given bulk of Steam in free communication with water at different temperatures, as deduced from actual experiment.—The Warming and Ventilating Public Buildings and Apartments, with an account of the methods which have been most successfully employed for ensuring a healthy state of the atmosphere.—An Account and Drawings of the original construction and present state of the Plymouth Breakwater.—The ratio, from actual experiment, of the Velocity, Load, and Power, of Locomotive Engines on Railways—1st, Upon Levels; 2nd, Upon Inclined Planes.—The Sewage of Westminster.—Drawings and Description of the Outfall of the King's Scholars' Pond Sewer, and of other principal Outfalls of the Westminster Sewage; also, the inclination, dimensions, and forms, of the Sewers, and the observed velocities of water in them.—Drawings and Descriptions of the Sewage under the Commission for Regent Street, especially of the Outfall at Scotland Yard.—Drawings and Description of the best Machine for describing the profile of a Road, and also for measuring the traction of different roads.—The alterations and improvements in Blackfriars Bridge.—The explosion of Steam Boilers; especially a record of facts connected with any explosions which have taken place; also, a description, drawings, and details, of the Boiler, both before and after the explosion.—Drawings, Sections, and Descriptions, of Iron Steam Vessels.—The comparative advantages of Iron and Wood as employed in the construction of Steam Vessels.—The advantages and disadvantages of the Hot and Cold Blast in the manufacture of Iron, with statements of the quality and quantity of the materials employed, and produce thereof.—The causes of and means of preventing the changes in texture and composition which Cast Iron occasionally undergoes when in continued contact with Sea Water.—The Properties and Chemical Constitution of the various kinds of Coal.

We hear occasionally from France and Italy, but at wider and wider intervals—thanks to the diffusion of knowledge and a better understanding of the comprehensive principle of Christian charity—that a fanatic priest has refused to receive into his church the dead body of some poor player or Protestant; and forthwith there is raised, not unnaturally, a hue and cry against the persecuting bigotry of the Catholic church. Yet it has this week been put in evidence before the House of Commons, that the Dean and Chapter of Westminster would not permit the body of the poet Byron to be interred in the Abbey, and that they have since refused to allow a statue to his memory, by Thorwaldsen, to be erected there. It is most strange, that the Dean and Chapter in question never come before the public, but Protestant cheeks blush. This last outrage, however, is worse than all—worse even than their conduct respecting "the late Mr. Caxton" and Sir Humphry Davy. The latter, it will be remembered, died at Geneva, and the honest Calvinists testified their respect for the philosopher, by honouring his remains with a public funeral; while the Dean and Chapter of Westminster charged his widow 142*l.*, for permission to erect a small tablet to his memory. Surely these people will not be permitted to play such worse than fantastic tricks for ever.

*CLOSING OF THE PRESENT EXHIBITION.*

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DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.

This Establishment will be SHORTLY CLOSED, arrangements having been made for sending the two Pictures now exhibiting abroad. They represent TIVOLI, with a View of the Cascades, and the Interior of the BASILICA of ST. PAUL, before and after its destruction by fire. Painted by Le Chevalier Bouton. Open from Ten till Five o'clock.

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## SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

### GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

*June.*—Mr. Murchison, V.P. in the chair. Several communications were read.

1. 'An Account of Spirolinites in Chalk and Chalk-flints,' by the Marquis of Northampton, F.G.S.—These microscopic fossils were found by the author principally in Sussex, and in some localities in great abundance, accompanied by innumerable minute fragments of small corals and other organic bodies. They occur more frequently in the grey than black flints; but in nearly every instance the shelly matter of the Spirolinite is of a lighter colour than the ground of the flint, or the filling up of the chambers. The fossil is seldom procured perfect, the prolonged or straight portion being generally detached from the spiral. One perfect specimen obtained in France measured about a third of an inch in length. Though it is extremely difficult to determine specific differences in minute fossils seldom exposed but by accidental fracture in a flint, yet the paper contained a list of six species.

2. 'A Note to accompany Specimens of Quicksilver Ore from the Mine of San Onofre, near the town of El Doctor, Mexico,' by John Taylor, Esq. Treas. G.S.—In consequence of the great consumption of quicksilver in Mexico, and the price of this metal in Europe having been recently doubled, the commissioners of the Real del Monte and Bolaños Mining Companies directed researches to be made in those districts where it was known to exist. Ores of quicksilver have consequently been traced in localities very remote from each other, but Mr. Taylor confined his observations to the point from which the specimens presented to the Society were obtained. The mine of San Onofre is said to be in a regular vein, which is from two to three yards in width, and intersects a calcareous hill of considerable height. The gangue is chiefly carbonate of lime, with sulphate of barytes and a small portion of silex. The ore is chiefly in the state of cinnabar, partly hepatic, but native quicksilver occurs in some specimens, and, more rarely, native calomel. When separated imperfectly from the matrix, a sample produced 40 per cent. of quicksilver. Other veins, containing indications of quicksilver, have been since observed near San Onofre; and preparations are making to pursue trials upon the whole, under the direction of Captain Rule.

3. 'Remarks on the Formation of Obsidian in the Mountains of Real del Monte, Mexico, extracted from Letters addressed to Mr. J. Taylor,' by Mr. Frederick Edmonds.—In the Cerro, a mountain about half a mile from the ancient Obsidian Mines, Mr. Edmonds states that that rock may be observed passing from a perfect glass to a trachytic sandstone, containing small pisolitic bodies similar to those which exist in true obsidian. Although no good section is exposed, the rocks are known to occur in irregular vertical beds. Mr. Edmonds melted a mass of the trachytic sandstone, and obtained a glass similar in appearance to obsidian; he, therefore, infers that the latter has been produced by the fusion of the former. Mr. Edmonds also mentioned, in a communication to Mr. Taylor, that in the Real del Monte mines he had observed a general increase of temperature downwards, corresponding to about 1° Fah. for every 69 feet.

4. 'A Notice of the Oar's Rock in the British Channel,' by Mr. Murchison.—During a short residence at Little Hampton, the author's attention was attracted to the revolving light at the Oar's Rock, about nine miles distant; and being desirous of ascertaining what formation could exist at that point, he procured, by the assistance of a friend, a specimen of the rock. He found it to be a calcareous sandstone, unlike that of Bognor, or any other bed above the chalk, but very similar to some of the strata in the green sands, or the Portland series, below that formation. The Oar's Rock, however, does not accord with the regular position of any of the latter deposits, and Mr. Murchison therefore inferred, as it is situated between the parallels of disturbance which traverse the Wealden of Sussex on the north, and the Isle of Wight on the south, that it may be due to the irregular protrusion of some of the green sand or Portland strata. He notices likewise the earthquake so frequently felt at Chichester, situated between the hills of Portsdown and Highdown, and shown by Mr. Martin to have been protruded through overlying tertiary strata.

5. 'On the Discovery of Fossil Fishes in the Bagshot Sands at Goldworth Hill, four miles north of Guildford,' by Dr. Buckland.—These remains were recently discovered in cutting through the summit of Goldworth Hill, on the line of the London and Southampton Railway, and their preservation is due to Mr. Sibthorpe, of Guildford. They consist of the teeth of sharks, the palates and teeth of rays, a large tooth of a saw-fish, the remains of three cartilaginous and a few vertebræ of bony fishes; also palatal teeth of three new genera, two of which offer combinations of characters of both these divisions. The structure of these teeth was described, as well as their mode of insertion in the jaws. In the stratum which contained these remains, there were likewise found portions

the carapace of an emys, resembling the species found in the London clay; and Sir Philip Egerton possesses a fragment of a tooth from Sheppey of one of the new genera found at Goldworth Hill. From the agreement, therefore, in the fossils of these localities, Dr. Buckland stated, that Mr. Lyell's opinion relative to the Bagshot sand being an eocene deposit, had received additional support.

6. 'A Notice on the Discovery of a Fossil Wing of a Neuropterous Insect in the Stonesfield Slate,' by Dr. Buckland.—The elytra of coleopterous insects have been found for some time in the Stonesfield slate, but this is the first announcement of a neuropterous in that deposit. The fossil had been carefully examined by Mr. Westwood, who entertained no doubt that it belonged to a tetrapterous insect, and to the order Neuroptera.

7. 'A Paper on some Species of Orthocerata,' by Mr. Stokes.—The object of this paper is to describe some Orthocerata, indicating generic distinctions, and to call attention to certain points respecting the relations of the shells to the animals to which they belonged. The distinctive characters adopted by Mr. Stokes depend upon the structure of the siphunculus, and three genera were described. The first is marked by a large siphunculus much dilated in each chamber, and having in the centre a continuous tube furnished with radii, which connect the tube with the wells of the siphunculus. For this genus Bronn's name of Actinoceras was retained, and four species were enumerated. The siphunculus of the second genus is similar to that of the first, but internally it is deeply indented in the middle, where the septa of the shell is attached to it, so that one half of each division of the siphunculus is in one chamber, and the other half in the next. The interior passage is small, and the inner and outer walls, which are separated by a considerable space, are beautifully curved. For this genus, Mr. Stokes proposes the name of Ormoceras; and he stated that he had ascertained the existence of three species. The third genus is characterized by the central tube being connected with the wells of the siphunculus by radiating lamellæ. The fossil was originally considered by the author to be a coral, which he called Huronia, and he retains the name for the present. Only one species has yet been satisfactorily determined. Mr. Stokes then offered some remarks respecting the relations of the shells to the animal to which it belonged. He is of opinion, from the siphunculus being much more often preserved than the external portion of the shell, that the latter was extremely thin, and was consequently enveloped in the soft part of the creature to protect it from injury. This view of the relation of the shell to the animal, he conceives, is further supported by having observed only one instance of a parasite being attached to the external shell; and he clearly showed that, in that instance, the cephalopode must have died previously to the attachment of the parasite. The memoir concluded with some remarks on a peculiar subdivision in the septa, towards the outer wall of one side of the chambers, noticed by the author in several specimens of Ormoceras, in an Orthoceras from Russia, and in Lituites; but he offered no opinion whether this character is common to the family of the Orthoceratidæ, or is confined to certain genera.

At the conclusion, the Society adjourned to the 7th of November.

## MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

### ENGLISH OPERA HOUSE.

This Evening, THE DEVIL'S OPERA; with THE M.P. FOR THE ROTTEN BOROUGH; and THE SPITFIRE.
On Monday, THE DEVIL'S OPERA; with THE M.P. FOR THE ROTTEN BOROUGH; and LA PEROUSE.
Tuesday, THE DEVIL'S OPERA; after which THE M.P. FOR THE ROTTEN BOROUGH; to conclude with OBI; or, THREE FINGERED JACK.
Wednesday, THE DEVIL'S OPERA; with THE M.P. FOR THE ROTTEN BOROUGH; and other Entertainments.
Thursday, THE DEVIL'S OPERA; with THE M.P. FOR THE ROTTEN BOROUGH; and THE EVIL EYE.

ENGLISH OPERA HOUSE.—Some of our contemporaries have spoken favourably of 'The Devil's Opera,' which was produced at this theatre on Monday last. For ourselves, such an unmeaning harlequinade, as is here crammed into a *libretto*, we do not remember to have encountered before. Will our opera-wrights never take a lesson in construction from our neighbours the French?—never advert to the fact that good music is at least as easily built upon sense as upon nonsense for basis—and that without coherent dramatic interest, and a certain probability in the conduct of its plot, even a 'Zauberflote' must be contented to take its place among works which are sat through rather than enjoyed—while a 'Sonnambula' fills theatres from one end of Europe to the other? Mr. Wieland, a dumb Egyptian Figaro, disguised as devil, for the disenchantment of a Venetian, *Marquis Posilipo* (Mr. E. Seguin), a foolish, would-be magician, bears the interest of the piece upon his shoulders, in more senses than one:—now snatching up his master, and rescuing him by a flight up a chimney from the judicial fangs of "the Ten"—now, in a scarcely less familiar manner, disposing of *Medora* (Mrs. E. Seguin), by interposing at that particular point of a *prima donna's* destiny which finds her all but married against her will:—now whirling a staid *gouvernante* (Miss Poole) round and round the stage, and dragging her off in a trunk: to say nothing of innumerable diabolical and gymnastic feats, the motives for which are even less intelligible than those of the energetic measures we have described. What would Gentleman Smith, whose retired old age (according to the anecdotemongers,) was cheered by the proud recollection that he had never descended through a trap-door, have said to such a piece of business? It is useless to speak further of the book:—the music, which is by Mr. G. A. Macfarren, offering us something better to descant on. Though evidently requiring the corrector's pen, here to prune, there to work out—it gives fair indications of a sprightliness and vein of melody which may be turned to account in future comic operas. Mr. Macfarren is ambitious of success on the grandest possible scale; he has worked throughout, not merely as if he were sure of finding a first-rate orchestra *corps* and chorus to execute his compositions, but as if he possessed sufficient grasp to find them all in due employment;—hence complicated *finales*—wearisome incantation scenes—over-scored airs, &c.—to all these we preferred the trio for the three ladies, in which Miss Poole deserved the highest praise for her neat and intelligible enunciation of English words, set nearly as rapidly as the Italian ones in Fioravanti's '*Amor, perche mi pizzichi?*' It gives us pleasure also to praise the lively drinking duet between Mr. Burnett and Mr. Seguin,—the ballad very sweetly sung by the former in the second act and *encored*, and Mrs. E. Seguin's last canzonet, with violoncello obligato, which was very clever and graceful. Neither Miss Rainforth, who had the part of a love-sick maiden, disguised as a page, nor Mr. Fraser, upon whose somewhat Atlantean shoulders reposed the principal love-work, belonging of right to the first tenor, were happily employed. The lady possesses more refinement of manner and finish as a singer than most of her contemporaries now on our stage—pity that her intonation is so uncertain!—the gentleman is rapidly improving, with a strong musical voice of his own to work upon. Let him, however, take warning by some of his brother tenor singers, and beware of falling into the vice of bawling.

## MISCELLANEA

*Magnetic Fluid.*—[From a correspondent.] During the late storm at Rochdale, a cotton-mill was struck by the lightning, and the bell which hung above the roof was destroyed. It was afterwards found that all the tools of a watchmaker residing in the neighbourhood, had become in a greater or less degree magnetic, and were wholly useless; they all attracted iron filings readily, and the hammer was polarized, the needle being neutral.

*Platina Wires.*—A musical composer, named Fischer, has proposed the substitution of platina wires for those of steel or brass. It is (he says,) more elastic and ductile, and the sounds produced by this metal are sweeter; air and damp do not act upon it, and as it combines with iron, cords might be made of a composition of the two, which would present the advantages of each.

*Discovery at Meung.*—While working in a quarry at Meung, the workmen came to a sculptured stone of a circular form, which covered a pit of no great depth, at the bottom of which, was the entire skeleton of a woman. On one of her fingers were two rings, one of silver without any carving; the second thick, and of pure gold, representing a knight with his helmet, and a scymetar suspended from his right arm.


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